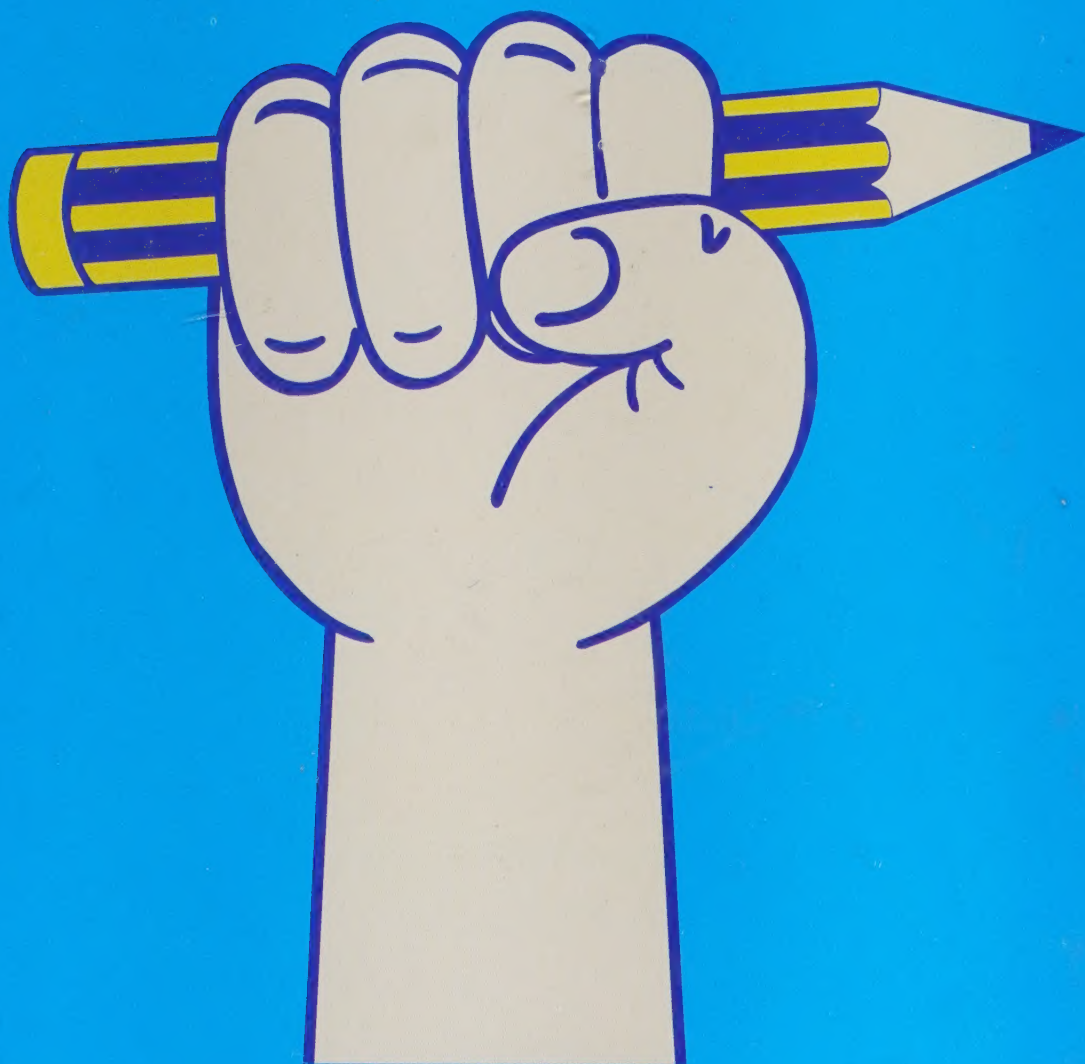


# NAFRE

## Draft National Status Report on Education

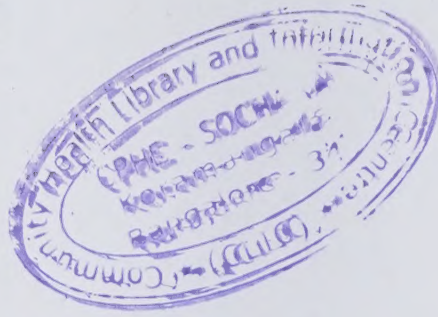
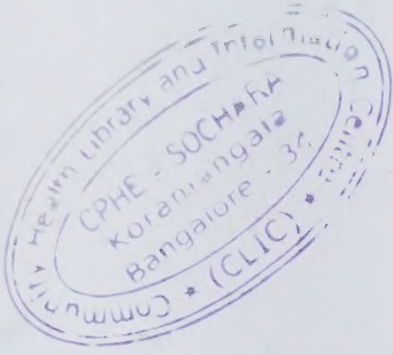


NATIONAL EDUCATION CONVENTION

APRIL 10<sup>th</sup> & 11<sup>th</sup>, 2001



16610



Draft

# **National Status Report on Education**

April 10, 2001

Prepared by  
National Alliance for the Fundamental Right to Education (NAFRE)

EDU-100  
16610 PO1



## Introduction about NAFRE and the NSRE

NAFRE - National Alliance for the Fundamental Right to Education came into existence in 1998, when a group of organisations joined hands with the common goal to realize the right of every child to education. Even though the participating organisations may have had diverse opinions about various details of different development and/or child related issues, they were all united on a broad understanding that each child has a fundamental right to education and that it must be realized with a sense of urgency.

The Alliance was formed with the following objectives:

- to act as a platform to strengthen micro level initiatives towards universalizing education
- to transfer the learnings from the grassroots to the macro level to facilitate policy reforms
- to work with all levels of Government, civil society and private sector to make education a Fundamental Right
- to monitor and promote the status of education while catalysing replicable models

The founding members of NAFRE include Aga Khan Foundation, Bodh, CRY-Child Relief and You, MV Foundation, National Foundation of India, National Law School University of India, Pratham, Save the Alliance, UNICEF, Vikramshila Education Resource Society (VERS). NAFRE today is a coalition of about 2,400 voluntary organisations and thousands of individuals from all sections of society working together to make education a reality for every Indian child.

NAFRE has State alliances in 14 States. These are Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Delhi, Jharkhand, Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat and Uttaranchal.

As its key agenda, NAFRE is now focusing its energy towards incorporating certain positive changes in the 83<sup>rd</sup> Constitutional amendment Bill, a bill which aims to make education a fundamental right for every child in India. The NAFRE members across the country strongly feel that these changes are crucial in ensuring that the bill will actually be meaningful for the children for whom it is intended in the first place.

NAFRE, together with its state partners, has in the past months been working on developing a groundswell of opinion. Sustained activity towards this objective has culminated in State conventions in 10 states. State conventions have been held in Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, and Delhi. Conventions are planned for the remaining 4 states in the near future.



Besides, 6 states have also commissioned primary level surveys to gather data on identified parameters. These parameters emerged out of a series of discussions held with partner states. Primary surveys have been commissioned in Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, West Bengal, and Delhi. A similar exercise is either ongoing or likely to be conducted in the other states

The National Status Report on Education (NSRE) is a document that reflects the demand of NAFRE's members that include 2,400 grassroots organisations and leading national organisations. It also provides a basis from the primary level surveys that have been conducted in various states.

The NSRE also articulates what NAFRE believes are its concerns on elementary education and policy on education and how it sees the 83<sup>rd</sup> Constitutional Amendment as a real and unique opportunity to initiate positive changes towards the objective of universalizing elementary education.

"Every child in school, every child learning"



## Executive Summary

The architects of India's Constitution realized the importance of education in the entire framework of a democratic nation. They, however, desisted from giving it a commensurate status. Education was included not as a fundamental right but as one of the Directive Principles (Article 45) of the Constitution whereby the state was urged to **provide universal elementary education by 1960**.

Indian education policy has been characterised by poor policies and ineffective implementation that has yielded poor results. The Indian Government has resorted to a number of policy initiatives in the past 50 years which can broadly be categorized in two phases:

- Phase I: those prior to 1990 and
- Phase II: those in the 1990s.

Phase I included the Kothari Commission Report (1964), the National Policies on Education of 1968 and 1986. Phase II commenced with the Report by the Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) in 1992 followed by a revised National Policy and Programme of Action in the same year. The second phase is distinctive as it is marked by certain disconcerting trends. There is significant dilution in overall objectives of the government in education policy including shifts in the definition of education from "elementary" to "primary", inconsistency of standards by encouraging cheaper education alternatives and shift in the realization of the goal of Universal Elementary Education.

Adult literacy in India at 52% is low when compared to the average of even "low income" countries at 55%. India's literacy figures are lower than what countries such as Korea, Thailand, China and Indonesia achieved 40 years back. Moreover, literacy and basic education parameters vary widely between states in India, between urban and rural India and also between male/female literacy.

Although, increases in enrollment in elementary education have been widely touted as a significant achievement of the State, **one out of every four children in the primary age group does not enroll in a school.** To add to this, the number of children who enroll does not equal the number that regularly attends school. Only about 50-60% of those who enroll in lower primary school complete the primary cycle - the rest drop out of the system. The six states of Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal account for three quarters of these "out of school" children.

This is not surprising considering the fact that education is still not accessible to large segments of the population. The lower to upper primary school is abysmal, with some districts having only 5 lower primary schools for every upper primary school. (The standard is supposed to be 2:1). The basic issue is therefore access and not retention as has been highlighted by the Lok Sampark Abhiyan in Madhya Pradesh.



There is an estimated overall shortage of 4 lakh primary schools with the growth rate of schools at about 1% being slower than even population growth. There is a shortage of about 3 to 4 million teachers, again with sharp differences between states. Most schools have inadequate infrastructure ranging from basic school building, teaching materials, sanitation, water and electricity.

Such an environment is not conducive to either attracting students to school nor in motivating teachers to perform. Teachers often have to teach multiple grades (given teacher shortages) with inadequate teaching aids and complex curricula. Teacher absenteeism is high and overall teaching quality suffers. Teachers account for 95% of expenditure on education and their effectiveness or lack of it is significant to the efficacy of the educational system.

Policy on education has generally been characterized by poor policy objectives together with diffident political stances. The weak political will is manifested by inadequate funding of elementary education and shifting trends in taking up responsibility for providing education. Since 1990, the tendency has been to look for short cuts and "scheme" based interventions as opposed to holistic policies that look at issues of child development in an integrated way. Most important has been the redefinition of the goal from "elementary" to "primary" education even in contradiction to India's position in international forums such as the UN Convention on Child Rights.

The policy on elementary education in India has had the following limitations:

- Lack of clarity of responsibility between Centre and state government since education is a concurrent subject
- Lack of long term sustainability of programmes and initiatives
- Lack of seriousness of intent in terms of financial commitments
- Lack of accountability mechanisms that provides in-built mechanisms of accountability of the education system to its users
- Lack of protection of interests of the child

An analysis of the role played by the private sector and the NGO sector demonstrates that **they are relatively minor players in providing education.** For example, private schools account for less than 6% of schools in India and these are mainly in cities. Moreover, private education is more expensive, and while generally providing better infrastructure and facilities, has no discernible difference in quality vis-à-vis government schools.

Similarly, although the NGO sector has played a vital role in catalysing community participation in education and pioneered several initiatives that are path breaking, it is a relatively insignificant player in providing for education.

The government is thus clearly the largest provider of elementary education in India. More recently, through the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) the government



has tried to bring in a holistic approach to implement education policy. However, the SSA still suffers from several lacunae including ambiguous deadlines, lack of basis for fund allocation and not being an apolitical body.

In 1993, a landmark Supreme Court judgement in 1993 transformed the intent of the Government into a commitment by clearly establishing education as a fundamental right. The well known verdict in the case of J.P. Unnikrishnan Vs. State of Andhra Pradesh clearly enunciates,

**“The citizens of this country have a fundamental right to education. The said right flows from Article 21.”**

As a reaction to the mounting international pressure and the momentum catalysed by the Supreme Court verdict the Government has drafted a Bill that seeks to amend the Constitution. The Draft amendment was tabled in the Rajya Sabha in July 1997. The key changes in the draft Bill that has been circulated are as follows:

- Limit the Constitutional right provided by Article 45 that guarantees free and compulsory education for all children upto the age of 14 years, to the age group 6-14 years.
- Exempt educational institutions run by private funds (non state) from providing free education.
- Place an additional duty on parents and/or guardians 'to provide opportunities for education'.

NAFRE, together with its state partners, has in the past months been working on developing a groundswell of opinion. Sustained activity towards this objective has culminated in State conventions in 10 states. Besides, 6 states have also commissioned primary level surveys to gather data on identified parameters. NAFRE's findings based on primary surveys of its member organisations re-affirm the macro-statistical data and in fact highlight some additional issues:

- The child population comprises nearly 50 per cent of children in the pre primary age group (0-5 years of age). Appropriate and adequate care and education of this age group will determine overall literacy figures of the future.
- At present only a very small percentage (10-15 percent) is enrolled in the *balwadis/anganwadis* or special primary schools. Increased allocation of resources in this segment and mainstreaming it with the primary schooling segment will be vital.
- Retention of children has been highlighted as a key issue by Government that has driven several demand driven policy initiatives. **Although retention is an issue, lack of access to a school where a child can receive reasonable quality of education still persists.** The data in the earlier sections has thrown up two reasons why this is the case.



- a. First, GERs tend to be overstated for various reasons. Therefore, the drop out ratio in comparison looks unduly large.
  - b. Secondly, the reason why there is a drop in the GERs for primary school and those for upper primary schools is that there are simply not enough upper primary schools to cater to the needs of the schooling children.
- It also appears from the data that female GERs are consistently low for all classes and states. Demand driven initiatives that are targeted to girls could be considered rather than for boys and girls.
  - **One of the key conclusions of the primary data analysis is that community partnership vehicles exist in the country and more importantly, are functioning.** This is an extremely important finding since empowerment of the local people and increased local governance will be the cornerstone of several Government initiatives.
  - The data on non formal education centres that are run by the Government shows that they are virtually non existent in the higher literacy states. They are, however, quite significant in states with low literacy levels. It may be worthwhile to assess the quality of education imparted in states such as MP, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh where NFEs will be an important feature.
  - The data on child labour suggests that it exists in specific industries such as carpet weaving, mining etc. Efforts to raise overall awareness on this vital issue can therefore be focused on these specific industries.
  - Data on adequacy of schools, students and teachers shows that there is a wide variation among states as far as ratios regarding school-student, teacher-student and teacher-school are concerned. It is possible that there are many hidden inefficiencies such as teacher absenteeism, poor maintenance of infrastructure, vacant teacher posts etc. It is therefore possible to increase the overall efficiency of the schooling system by setting in place initiatives for the community to monitor progress.

NAFRE's stand on universalizing education touches on three aspects of government policy, finance and process of implementation. NAFRE believes that education policy should reflect the following :

- Education is a fundamental right
- It is the responsibility of the state to provide education
- Quality of schooling is a critical factor and a minimum standard that is contextual to the community and equitable (not different for different schools). Quality must lay down adequate standards with respect to critical aspects of content and curricula, teachers and teaching methods and infrastructure. These factors determine utilization of education and retention of children in school.



- "Free education" must be specified to include all related costs of accessing education, a view supported by the Joint Parliamentary Committee that debated the Amendment.
- UEE is an immediate national Priority and a minimum level of finance to be allocated to elementary education; the suggested is a minimum of 6% of GDP for elementary education.
- Policy should spell out processes of achieving UEE that reflect participatory decision making and community involvement.
- It should reflect a desire to depoliticised regulation and enforcement of education policies, a practice acknowledged as necessary by government in promoting growth of different sectors.
- It must clearly define roles of the Centre, State, local self-government and the community.

NAFRE has, in line with its stance on education, recommended positive changes to the Draft 83<sup>rd</sup> Constitutional Amendment to reflect its views.







Section	Contents	Page
<b>SECTION I</b>	<b>PERSPECTIVE ON EDUCATION POLICY - AN ANALYSIS</b>	
<b>CHAPTER 1</b>	<b>TRACKING PROGRESS IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION</b>	<b>9</b>
1.	LITERACY IN INDIA IN AN INTERNATIONAL CONTEXT	9
2.	SOME KEY ASPECTS OF EDUCATION	11
3.	A BRIEF SUMMARY	16
<b>CHAPTER 2</b>	<b>EDUCATION POLICY IN INDIA</b>	<b>18</b>
1.	MILESTONES IN PHASE I (1950 - 1986)	18
2.	MILESTONES IN PHASE II (1986 - 2000)	20
3.	OVERALL FEATURES OF EDUCATION POLICY IN INDIA, (1950-2000)	21
4.	SPECIFIC TRENDS IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION POLICY IN PHASE II	24
5.	A SUMMARY OF THE CRITIQUE ON POLICY ON ELEMENTARY EDUCATION	28
<b>CHAPTER 3</b>	<b>OTHER PARTICIPANTS - THE PRIVATE SECTOR AND NGOS</b>	<b>32</b>
1.	THE PRIVATE SECTOR	32
2.	THE NON-GOVERNMENTAL SECTOR (NGOs)	34
<b>CHAPTER 4</b>	<b>ELEMENTARY EDUCATION - A FUNDAMENTAL RIGHT</b>	<b>36</b>
1.	THE SUPREME COURT VERDICT OF 1993	36
2.	THE DRAFT 83RD CONSTITUTION AMENDMENT BILL	36
<b>CHAPTER 5</b>	<b>FINANCING UNIVERSAL ELEMENTARY EDUCATION (UEE)</b>	<b>38</b>
1.	THE SAIKIA COMMITTEE	38
2.	THE TAPAS MAZUMDAR COMMITTEE	38
<b>CHAPTER 6</b>	<b>SARVA SHIKSHA ABHIYAN : AN ASSESSMENT (SSA)</b>	<b>40</b>
<b>SECTION II</b>	<b>THE GRASSROOTS REALITY</b>	
<b>CHAPTER 7</b>	<b>GROUND REALITIES</b>	
1.	INTRODUCTION	43
2.	THE FRAMEWORK OF ANALYSIS	43
3.	THE ANALYSIS	44
4.	PRIMARY DATA INDICATORS	51
5.	IN SUMMARY	53
<b>SECTION III</b>	<b>NAFRE'S RECOMMENDATIONS</b>	
<b>CHAPTER 8</b>	<b>RECOMMENDATIONS OF NAFRE</b>	
1.	INTRODUCTION	55
2.	NAFRE'S STAND ON UNIVERSALIZATION OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION	56
3.	RECOMMENDATIONS OF NAFRE FOR THE DRAFT 83RD CONSTITUTIONAL AMENDMENT	59
<b>ANNEXURES</b>		
1.	The Organisational Structure of Elementary Education	62
2.	Selected NGO initiatives in Elementary Education	64
3.	Primary Data Tables	68





## Section I

*Perspective on education policy - An analysis*





## Chapter 1: Tracking progress in elementary education

Prior to commencing with an analysis of the macro policy in education we will present in this chapter some of the indicators of education and literacy in India. This chapter is a 'report card' on the consequences of policies formulated, adopted and implemented by the Indian Government since Independence.

### 1. Literacy in India in an international context

#### *1.1 Low literacy rates with lower female literacy*

Progress in elementary education in India has to be viewed in the overall context of growth in literacy. At the time of Independence, the literacy rate in India was extremely low at less than 15% of the adult population. This has improved over the past five decades (see Table 1.1). There is also a substantial difference in the male and female literacy rates with the rate for female literacy being only 39% as compared with 64% for males.

Table 1.1: Literacy rates in India since 1881 till 1991

<i>Year</i>	<i>Literacy rate</i>
1881	6.3
1911	7.3
1931	9.3
1951	18.3
1961	28.3
1971	34.5
1981	43.7
1991	52.2

Note: Literacy rates for 1881-1931 are for persons more than 10 years old. Rates for 1951-71 are for those more than 5 years old. The balance rates are for persons more than 7 years old.

Source: Parulekar, 1957; Ministry of HRD, 1993.

#### *1.2 Poor performance compared to other developing countries*

The rate of adult literacy of about 52% in 1991 is low not only in comparison with China's 78% but also that of the 'low income countries' average of 55%. Some other countries that have followed diverse economic policies ranging from market oriented capitalism to communism have been able to make much better progress in the field of elementary education. These include, to name a few, Vietnam, Taiwan, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Zimbabwe, and Ghana.

What is significant about the difference between India's literacy progress and that achieved by other countries is that India's rate today is *far lower* than what most countries had achieved almost four decades ago i.e. *by 1960*. To elaborate further,

countries such as Korea, Thailand and Indonesia reached rates of literacy of 50% way back in 1960. India has a long way to go.

Table 1.2: Adult Literacy rates in Selected Asian countries

	1960	1980	1992
India	28	36	50
South Korea	71	93	97
Hong Kong	70	90	100
Thailand	68	86	94
China	n.a	69	80

Source: *India: Economic Development and Social Opportunity*, Jean Dreze and Amartya Sen, page 38

### 1.3 Poor performance compared to countries at similar stage of economy

It may appear that these countries, particularly the Asian countries, have made rapid strides economically and achievements in literacy are a natural corollary. The fact is that these countries have been able to build their social infrastructure *despite* economic progress. Most of the achievements in health and literacy in Korea, Thailand and Hong Kong have occurred before the launch of economic reform or restructuring.

The most illuminating example is that of China. China launched its economic reforms in 1980 but by this time had achieved an infant mortality rate of 37 per 1,000 births (India had 110 per 1,000 births) and a life expectancy of 68 years (in India it was 54 years). It is argued that the communist government of pre reform China very determinedly followed a policy that resulted in changes that were very useful in the economic expansion of the post reform period. In our quest to emulate the economic policies of our Asian neighbours, it may be well to dwell on this point that is often overlooked.

"If India has to emulate China in market success, it is not adequate just to liberalize economic controls in the way the Chinese have done, without creating the social opportunities that post reform China inherited from the pre reform transformation. The 'magic' of China's market rests on the solid foundations of social changes that had occurred earlier, and India cannot simply hope for that magic without making the enabling social changes..."

Source: *India: Economic Development and Social Opportunity*, Jean Dreze and Amartya Sen



## 2. Some key aspects of education

When looking at macro figures for elementary education<sup>1</sup> in India, certain basic issues emerge. These are mainly - the low levels of attendance and retention, the wide disparities of achievements across states and districts, the poor and grossly inadequate infrastructure and finally the poor quality as reflected in levels of learning achievement of students.

### 2.1 *Enrolment, attendance and retention rates*

Table 1.3 presents data on an all-India basis and that for two states of India, Uttar Pradesh and Kerala. This table is based on data calculated from the NSS data and the census data that have nearly consistent data and have been used by Dreze and Sen in their analysis. Official figures are mentioned wherever necessary, but it is important to point out that these tend to be inflated and portray a far more optimistic picture.

Table 1.3: Basic education in India: Achievements and Diversities

	India	Uttar Pradesh	Kerala
<b>Literacy rates (age 7+) for selected groups, 1991</b>			
Total population:			
Female	39	25	86
Male	64	56	94
Rural scheduled castes:			
Female	19	8	73
Male	46	39	85
<b>Literacy rates among children aged 10-14, 1987-8</b>			
Rural: Female	52	39	98
Male	73	68	98
Urban: Female	82	69	98
Male	88	76	97
<b>Proportion of rural children attending school, 1987-8 (%)</b>			
Age 5-9: Female	40	28	83
Male	52	45	87
Age 10-14: Female	42	31	91
Male	66	64	93
<b>Percentage of never enrolled children in the 12-14 age group, 1986-87</b>			
Rural: Female	51	68	1.8
Male	26	27	0.4
Urban: Female	19	39	0.6
Male	11	19	0.0

Source: *India: Economic Development and Social Opportunity*, Jean Dreze and Amartya Sen, page 112.

<sup>1</sup> Elementary education covers grade 1 to 8, with lower primary being from grade 1 to 5 and upper primary starting at grade 5 in some states and grade 6 in the others. Secondary education covers grades 9 to 12, with lower secondary being 9 and 10 and upper secondary being grades 11 and 12. Tertiary education starts with after secondary education.

*Increase in gross enrolments at primary school level but....*

Official statistics tout gross enrolment figures as one of the biggest successes of the efforts in elementary education. The official gross enrollment figures in 1991-92 were 102% for the 6-11 age group and 62% for the 11-14 age group. While these numbers may be unreliable for reasons cited earlier, there is broad consensus that this has been an achievement. (The Government has built up an implementation and governance structure over the years. A brief idea of the structure is presented in Annexure 1.) The gross enrollment ratios are, however, usually about 25% higher than net enrollment ratios, which are adjusted for overage and underage children. The official net enrollment ratio for the age group 6-14 would be about 75%.<sup>2</sup> That means that despite progress made, one out of every four children in the primary age group does not enrol in a school.

*....lower attendance and high drop out rates*

The education participation rate, that is the number of children *attending* school as different from enrolled at school, is lower. Some children do not attend class regularly. Others drop out before completing the five years of primary schooling. The lack of authentic data on enrollment ratios and attendance record makes it difficult to calculate the number of children who are 'out of school'. These would include non-enrolled, non-attending and drop outs.<sup>3</sup> From the table above it is clear that on an average 50-60% of the children actually attend school or complete the primary cycle. This average is much higher for Kerala, where there is near 100% attendance.

*...school retention inadequate for basic skills*

This leads us to the conclusion that one out of every three children in India is out of school, is enrolled but not attending school or simply drops out before completing the entire primary cycle. What is disconcerting is the fact that more than half the students who drop out do so in grades 1 and 2. International experience suggests that about 4-6 years of experience is needed to develop basic skills in maths and language.

*Wide disparity between states, urban-rural and gender*

National data hides much of the disparities between the various states of India, as one can see from Table 1.3. There also exist large inequalities in educational achievements

<sup>2</sup> *Children: Work and Education, Rethinking on Out of School Children*, Sharada Jain, Education For All.

<sup>3</sup> The Saikia Committee estimated this number to be 63 million in the age group of 6-14. The 1991 Census puts this number at 75 million.<sup>3</sup> According to the report submitted by the Expert Group on Financing of education, chaired by Tapas Mazumdar, this number is 70 million. The total number of children in the primary age group of 6-14 is about 200 million.



between males and females, between rural and urban and between different social groups. The variability is the highest in female literacy - it is 25% for Uttar Pradesh and 86% for Kerala.

These variations are widest in some selected states. As is evident from Table 1.4, the six states of Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal account for the highest number of out of school children. These 6 states contain half of India's population (470 million as per the 1991 census out of the 840 million) and three quarters of the children "out of school". Progress towards achieving UEE will depend clearly on the progress achieved in enrollment and attendance in these states.

Table 1.4: Some selected indicators for states in India

State	Gross enrollment rate, 1993	Drop out rate, 1993		Literacy rate (ages 7 & above), 1991		Rural literacy rate in 10-14 age group, 1987-8	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Kerala	96	0	0	94	86	98	98
Maharashtra	119	24	32	77	52	86	68
Himachal Pradesh	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	75	52	95	81
Tamil Nadu	144	16	18	74	51	85	71
Punjab	85	21	23	66	50	76	69
Gujarat	106	42	51	73	48	78	61
West Bengal	104	36	46	68	47	69	61
Karnataka	119	37	44	67	44	74	56
Assam	93	-	-	62	43	83	78
Haryana	84	2	7	69	40	87	63
Orissa	101	53	52	63	35	70	51
Andhra Pradesh	93	42	42	55	33	66	42
Madhya Pradesh	98	23	35	58	29	68	40
Uttar Pradesh	76	20	20	56	25	68	39
Bihar	73	62	66	53	23	59	34
Rajasthan	85	35	56	55	20	72	22
<b>All India</b>	<b>96</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>73</b>	<b>52</b>

Source: Primary Education in India. The World Bank (derived from MHRD figures); Dreze & Sen, page 47

## 2.2 Are there enough schools?

Enrollments are, as has been noted earlier, increasing. Have schools kept pace with the increase in population and enrollment? According to government policy, schools must have a minimum of 2 rooms and 2 teachers, a teacher pupil ratio of 1:40, and be located within 1 km of walking distance for a child.

There are about 7,75,000 lower and upper primary schools in India, of which about 6,00,000 are primary and the balance are upper primary. The number of primary schools in 1987 was 5,30,000. This increased to 5,75,000 in 1993. About 24,000 have

been added between 1993 and 1997. This provides an annual growth rate of school buildings of a little more than 1%.

It is evident that the rate of growth of primary schools has not kept pace either with the increase in population (which is 2.2%) or with that of enrollment (which is about 14%). The Tapas Mazumdar committee calculated that for UEE approximately 400,000 schools need to be built - 2,20,678 upper primary and 1,78,700 primary schools.

### 2.3 Are there enough teachers?

The shortage of school buildings extends to a shortage of classrooms and teachers. The total number of lower and upper primary teachers is about 3 million. According to the Tapas Mazumdar committee report, for a teacher student norm of 1:30 with full enrollment India needs to add about 4 million teachers. Since the increase in addition of teachers has not kept pace,<sup>4</sup> the teacher pupil ratio has gone up from about 1: 45 to 1: 49. As a matter of fact, it varies widely and is higher in some states than others. For example, the teacher student ratio in Bihar is 1: 60 while in Gujarat it is 1: 79. Such a high ratio places an undue burden on the teacher, resulting in lack of individual attention to students, low quality education and eventually student dropouts.

### 2.4 Is the infrastructure adequate?

Classroom and facility shortages are more acute in states whose population is increasing faster than the rest of India. For example, Uttar Pradesh and Bihar in 1986 had less than 70% of the classrooms needed to *accommodate all the children enrolled*. By 1993, both to address the needs of already enrolled children and those not yet enrolled, the stock of classrooms would need to be increased by 150 per cent in Uttar Pradesh and 130 per cent in Bihar.

By contrast, Madhya Pradesh that is similar to Bihar and UP in its other demographic and enrollment parameters, would need its stock of classrooms to increase by 30% to accommodate its 1993 enrollment and by 35% to accommodate the total children in the age group 6-10. Achieving this growth is challenging, not impossible. On another extreme are Kerala and Tamil Nadu that are experiencing declining fertility rates and so have a smaller problem of school access. *Although there is a glaring shortage of*

---

<sup>4</sup> This point is brought out in Dreze and Sen's analysis of rate of growth of Government expenditure. This shows that increased Government expenditure has been used up to meet increased salaries per teacher. The number of teachers has grown very slowly (the rate of growth of the number of teachers has fallen from 5.6% in 1950-60 to 1.6% in 1984-90) and the expenditure per teacher has risen drastically (from 3% to 9.2% in the same period).



*building infrastructure in terms of school buildings, classrooms and teachers, these will be urgently required in selected states and districts rather than all across the states.*

Schools generally have inadequate facilities for safe drinking water, sanitation and electricity as well though there are differences between states.

Table 1.5: Working Conditions in schools in some states

State	Schools with safe drinking water	Schools with toilet facilities	Schools with electricity	Grades in pukka buildings	Schools with multigrade classes
Assam	21	10	0	22	59
Haryana	76	57	27	56	59
Karnataka	41	9	26	68	62
Kerala	36	65	27	65	1
Madhya Pradesh	34	16	10	57	83
Tamil Nadu	61	9	21	60	62

Source: *Primary Education in India*. The World Bank, page 159.

## 2.5 Is the environment in school motivating?

Why do children drop out and not complete the primary school cycle? There are many reasons that include the home environment and societal pressures. However, one important reason also is the quality of schooling – the teaching and teaching methods, the curriculum used and the environment. There is evidently very little ‘pull’ and children do not feel motivated to come to the school.

Besides, a number of schools lack several basic amenities. Electricity, safe drinking water and toilets are seldom available (Table 1.5). Many do not have proper buildings and classes are held outside which presents problems during inclement weather.

## 2.6 Are teachers motivated and equipped?

Teachers generally have many complaints about the working environment and levels of motivation. Apart from high student drop out rates and low parental motivation in some states, teachers have to also ‘make do’ with inadequate teaching aids (chalk, books, blackboards etc) and a complex curricula that is usually out of context. Many schools have children of different age groups so teachers have to be trained and feel comfortable with multi grade teaching. As a result, teacher absenteeism is high in most states. In some, such as Madhya Pradesh and Haryana, teachers are not in school 40% of the time. In states such as Maharashtra and Orissa the record is better (75-80%) while in Kerala and Tamil Nadu the attendance is nearly 100%.

Teacher salaries comprise 95% of the expenditure on education. Teacher attendance and motivation is also a strong determinant of student learning. It therefore becomes

crucial to examine strategies to increase teacher motivation, accountability and improve cost effectiveness by linking teacher work incentives with work performance.

### *2.7 Are children learning?*

Given the constraints that have been highlighted, it is not surprising that children studying in Indian schools are not learning. Several surveys conducted on the learning achievement of students have come up with alarming statistics. A 1991 study of NCERT conducted in 23 states, found that for a sample of 65,000 grade IV students, the average achievement on basic skills of arithmetic, reading comprehension, and spelling was 46.4%. That means that in most of the states the students answered less than half of the questions correctly. These results vary across states and across districts.

Learning achievement is a critical indicator of success of the education system and is a net result of what goes into making the system – school infrastructure, management, teacher quality and monitoring and parental motivation. Teacher student interaction is probably a vital input in the system but as the above paragraphs indicate, there is an inadequate environment for teachers to be highly motivated about their work and provide the desired quality.

### **3. A brief summary**

Adult literacy in India at 52% is low when compared to the average of low income countries at 55%. Contrary to popular belief, literacy figures for countries at comparable levels of economic development have been much higher. These include countries such as Korea, Thailand and Indonesia, Sri Lanka, Zimbabwe and Ghana.

Literacy and basic education parameters vary widely between states in India. Similar differences exist in terms of urban and rural India as also on male / female literacy ratios. Increases in enrollment in elementary education has been widely touted and accepted by many as a significant achievement over the past five decades. But still one out of every four children in the primary age group does not enroll in a school.

The number of children attending school and those who eventually drop out of the schooling system further aggravates this status with only about 50-60% of those who enroll in school completing primary education. International experience suggests that 4 to 6 years of experience is needed to develop basic skills in maths and language, something that is largely not being achieved in India.

Disparities between states in India is quite extreme with the six states of Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal accounting for three quarters of the "out of school" children.



The above factors are not surprising considering that there is a shortage of an estimated 400,000 primary schools and the growth rate of schools at about 1% is slower than population growth. There is a shortage of about 3 to 4 million teachers, again with sharp differences between states. Most schools have inadequate infrastructure ranging from basic school building, teaching materials, sanitation, water and electricity.

Such an environment is not conducive to either attracting students to school nor in motivating teachers to perform. Teachers often have to teach multiple grades (given teacher shortages) with inadequate teaching aids and complex curricula. Teacher absenteeism is high and overall teaching quality suffers. Teachers account for 95% of expenditure on education and their effectiveness or lack of it is significant to the efficacy of the educational system.





## Chapter 2: Education Policy in India

The Indian Government, in all its policy statements, has recognised education to be an important facet of overall economic growth. Accordingly, it has resorted to a number of policy initiatives in the past 50 years. This chapter presents the milestones, overall features and a brief analysis of the policy. Given the scope of this document, only the key initiatives providing the overall trend of policy on education are dealt with in this chapter.

The overall policy on education in the country is categorised into two broad phases:

- Phase 1 that covers the time from Independence to 1990, and
- Phase 2 that covers the time span since 1990 upto 2000.

There are some distinctly disconcerting trends that have emerged in the 1990s and these are highlighted in the following analysis.

Phase 1 (1950-1986)	Phase 2 (1986-2000)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Constitutional resolve, 1950</li> <li>• National Commission on Education (Kothari Commission), 1964-66</li> <li>• National Policy on Education (NPE), 1968</li> <li>• National Policy on Education, 1986</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Report of the Central Advisory Board on Education (CABE), 1991-2</li> <li>• Revised NPE, and Programme of Action, 1992</li> <li>• International events                             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The Jomtien conference, 1990</li> <li>• UN Convention on Rights of the Child. 1990</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

### 1 Milestones in Phase 1 (1950-1986)

#### *1.1 At the time of Independence*

Some amount of confusion in the progress towards basic literacy was caused by differing ideological convictions that prevailed at the time of Independence. These included the belief that the prevalent education system was a tool for the subjugation of the lower classes and indeed a remnant of the colonial rule. A distorted view of the Gandhian belief that education should go beyond literacy and that 'literacy in itself was no education' also led to an emphasis on 'employability' rather than schooling. Some of these ideological debates persist.

#### *1.2 Constitutional Commitment*

The architects of India's Constitution realized the importance of education in the entire framework of a democratic nation. They, however, desisted from giving it a commensurate status. Education was included not as a fundamental right but as one

of the Directive Principles (Article 45) of the Constitution whereby the state was urged to **provide universal elementary education by 1960.**

“the State shall endeavour to provide within a period of 10 years from the commencement of the Constitution for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of 14.”

Directive Principles, Article 45

### *1.3 National Policy on Education (NPE), 1968*

The Kothari Commission appointed in 1964 to look into the Education Policy submitted its report after 2 years. The NPE, 1968 is based on the broad recommendations of the Commission. The NPE, 1968 focused on the following aspects:

- Link education with productivity. Restructuring the content and curriculum so that education becomes more ‘relevant’. These included measures such as vocationalisation of secondary education and including work experience as an integral part of education.
- Use education to reduce social disparities. Introducing programmes of social service, moral ethics etc in schools, especially its strong recommendation of a “common school system” that would provide a uniform quality and standard of education to all, irrespective of caste, class and gender.
- Improve the status of teachers. While there were several measures regarding salaries, benefits, training and teachers’ organisation etc, the policy was silent on the key issue of accountability.

### *1.4 National Policy Education, 1986*

The National Policy on Education, 1986, was ostensibly another stock taking exercise. The primary concern expressed at the time was that although enrolments had increased, drop out rates were alarming. The focus of the policy was, therefore, to improve the quality of education and make it child centred. According to the policy statement, “The most important aspect of this reform will be to make education a joyful, inventive and satisfying learning activity, rather than a system of rote and cheerless, authoritarian instruction”.

The NPE 1986 was, however, was not very different from NPE 1968 in terms of lack of practical recommendations. Although it recognized the need for a concerted effort to expand and improve basic education and usher in UEE before the 21<sup>st</sup> century, it also did not provide the ways and means of making this ‘resolve’ a reality.



## 2 Milestones in Phase 2 (1986 to 2000)

### 2.1 *CABE Report, 1991-92*

In 1992, the Central Advisory Board on Education (CABE) conducted a revision of the NPE, 1986. This was done in the light of the 73<sup>rd</sup> and 74<sup>th</sup> amendments to the Constitution, which provided for greater empowerment of the Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs). The CABE report recommended an *integrated approach* to elementary education *focused on the district level*.

### 2.2 *Revised NPE and the Programme of Action (PoA), 1992*

The updated NPE 1986 was adopted by Parliament in 1992. A plan of action called the Programme of Action was outlined subsequently. This was to provide direction to the efforts of the Indian Government in expansion and improvement of education. The PoA focused on demand side interventions such as ICDS schemes, girl education, free transportation etc. It also identified the need for greater decentralisation in planning and management, and increased need for social mobilisation. As a result, several partnerships have emerged between the Government and NGOs.

### 2.3 *International events*

Significant and growing international pressure has emerged as a result of various events. The United Nations declared the year 1989 as the tenth anniversary of the International Year of the Child. The World Conference on Education was held in Jomtien (Thailand) in 1990 where member countries committed to a consensus 'expanded vision'<sup>5</sup> of basic education and adopted a Framework of Action to realise this commitment. The conference drew participation from 155 countries, including India, as participants that had assembled to discuss major aspects of Education for All (EFA).

India also ratified the UN Convention on Rights of the Child in 1990. As all international treaties, the UNCCR also poses certain obligations on India. The treaty defines a child as a person 18 or less than 18 years of age.

---

<sup>5</sup> The "expanded vision" of education, went beyond the restricting definition of literacy. While the UNESCO has advocated adult literacy and basic education UNICEF has stressed on early childhood development. On the other hand, the World Bank has emphasised formal primary school system. The "expanded vision" attempts to transcend the conventional understanding of education and construct a comprehensive framework.

### 3 Overall features of education policy in India, (1950-2000)

#### 3.1 Poor policy objectives backed by inadequate funds

Firstly, the stated policy objectives themselves have been inadequate in the context of the needs of a growing country. Second, even these inadequate policy objectives have not translated into financial commitments. The seriousness of intent of a policy lies not in ambitious proclamations but in financial commitments and budgetary allocations. The education policy has been grossly inadequate in two respects.

Several commissions have examined the education policy and recommended increased budgetary allocations to the Indian Government. In fact the National Policy of 1968 and the Revised NPE of 1992 reiterate the need for an allocation of 6% of the GNP for education. These have, however, remained recommendations.

This is not to say that the expenditure on education has not increased. But these gains seem insignificant when seen in context with the increase in population. For example, while the absolute expenditure on education has increased by about 360 times since Independence, the per capita increase is only 130 times and the expenditure per pupil is only 62 times.

Similarly, while the share of education in GNP has increased from 1.2% in 1950-51 to 3.6% in 1997-98, this is simply not enough. This is because this proportion does not address the unfulfilled needs of every child in the primary age group. Besides the existing system does not provide for reasonable levels of quality education to all enrolled students. When bringing in international comparison, this figure of 3.6% of GNP seems ridiculously low. India, as a matter of fact, ranks 115<sup>th</sup> with respect to indicators of national efforts on education.

#### 3.2 Lack of clarity of responsibility – Central or State Government

The Indian Constitution in 1949 divided power between the Central and State governments. As far as education was concerned, the Central government was assigned *direct* responsibility for only Central universities and standards in higher education and a *shared* responsibility for vocational and technical training. All other responsibilities were assigned to the State government.

In practice, the emphasis on centralised funds allocation through the Five-Year Plans gave the Central government a much larger role than the division of powers in the Constitution suggested. The 42<sup>nd</sup> amendment in 1976, which made education a concurrent responsibility, de facto legalised the practice. It invested the Parliament with the authority to legislate on education and facilitate evolution of national policies for education. The Central Government has, therefore, played a very important part in determining direction to policy in education.



The story of expenditure is, however, very different. Not dissimilar to other countries (See Box), education expenditure is met primarily by individual states. In fact they have been meeting 90% of the expenditure on education, invariably their largest expenditure item (about one-fifth of their budget). The share of education in Central Government expenditure is a little over 3% (this has typically hovered around 2-3% in the past).

### Educational responsibility in other countries

Countries with a federal system of government tend to be large with wide disparity of wealth and resources within states. The issue of distribution of resources is therefore a ticklish one. Usually the difference in the states' economic bases leads to differential abilities to raise taxes and invite private investment. Transfers by the Central government in some form or the others are warranted. Various countries respond in varying ways such as redistributive mechanisms, increasing non-statutory grants and shifting administrative responsibilities to higher levels of government.

*In industrialised federal counties such as Canada and the US, the constitutional responsibility for education rests with the State and not the Central or federal Government. The Central government provides only 8-9% of the expenditure, which is usually in the form of research grants, scholarships to handicapped students etc. In developing countries such as Brazil and Nigeria the federal government plays a larger role and contributes to about 30% of the education expenditure. This is generally towards higher and technical education.*

A scenario, where policies are framed by the Central Government and expenditures made by the State Government, assumes that feedback systems connecting the grassroots to the policy makers exist and are working. In actual fact layers of bureaucracy make flows of information extremely difficult.

### 3.3 Lack of practical recommendations in policy – shifting deadlines

An analysis of policy statements reveals that the policies on elementary education have been marked by ambitious proclamations followed by action that has been at best confusing in its direction and limited in its overall impact. The emphasis has been on “attempting” to provide basic education and ambitious policy statements have been drawn up without the practical measures for implementation.

As a result the goal of UEE has been placed before the nation and shifted three times. Starting from the target year of 1960 set at the time of Independence, working groups of the Planning Commission have revisited this goal, revised the targets and set another benchmark year. In 1950, the goal for UEE was fixed for 1960. In 1966, the Kothari Commission proposed achieving the goal latest by 1986. This target was also

superseded when in 1986, the National Policy on Education articulated a goal of ensuring that by 1990 all children 11 years of age would have completed 5 years of formal or nonformal education. The goal for UEE was kept vague – ‘before the 21st century’. Yet India has reached only about 50% literacy levels after more than 50 years of Independence. Other countries have achieved far more in far less the time, including China.

The practical inadequacy of policy is reflected in the fact that to this day compulsory education has not actually been implemented anywhere in India. Although State Governments and even local authorities are empowered to make elementary education compulsory, they have not done so.<sup>6</sup> The reason is that the provision of educational facilities remains hopelessly out of line with the requirements of UEE.

### 3.4 Spending priorities biased against elementary education

The share of elementary education in total national spending on education has been declining over the years. While not decrying the need for investment in other sectors such as higher and technical education, a quick look at Table 1.6 reveals that the priorities for spending have been heavily biased against elementary education.

In the first 15-20 years after Independence, expenditure concentrated primarily on building technical and higher education infrastructure. Currently, the share of elementary education in GDP is 1.7% and about 50% of the total allocation to education. This is still lower than what it was at the time of the First Five-Year Plan.

Table 1.6: Share of elementary education in total expenditure on education (%)

	<i>Elementary</i>	<i>Adult</i>	<i>Secondary</i>	<i>Higher</i>	<i>Technical</i>
<b>I Plan</b>	56	3	13	9	13
<b>II Plan</b>	35	1	19	18	18
<b>III Plan</b>	34	0.3	18	15	21
<b>Annual plans (1965-68)</b>	24	11	16	24	25
<b>IV Plan</b>	30	1	18	25	13
<b>V Plan</b>	35	4	17	22	12
<b>VI Plan</b>	30	3	25	18	11
<b>VII Plan</b>	34	6	22	14	12
<b>Annual plans (1990-92)</b>	33	7	20	11	16
<b>VIII Plan</b>	42	8	16	7	13

<sup>6</sup> Schooling is nominally compulsory in 14 states and 4 union territories. These are Assam, Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Gujarat, Haryana, Jammu & Kashmir, Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Punjab, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, and West Bengal. Union territories - Andaman & Nicobar, Chandigarh, Delhi and Pondicherry.



#### 4 Specific trends in elementary education policy in Phase 2 (post 1990)

In addition to the above features that are reflected in the education policy on elementary education, the 1990s have been marked by additional trends that are outlined in the following paragraphs.

##### 4.1 *Declining share of education expenditure in GDP – dilution in commitments*

The share of expenditure in education has been increasing since 1950. It reached its highest in 1990-91 and was 4.9% of GDP.

Since then it has been declining as is evident from Table 1.7. It is currently only 3.6% of GDP. It is surprising that after the EFA declaration the expenditure on education has shown a distinctly declining trend.

**Table 1.7 Share of education in GDP in India (%)**

<i>Decade/Year</i>	<i>% of GDP</i>
1950-60	1.8
1960-70	2.8
1970-80	3.1
1980-90	3.2
1990-91	4.9
1994-95	4.0
1997-98	3.6

*Financing education, EFA document, JBG Tilak, Page8*

##### 4.2 *Increasing 'schemes' in education – piecemeal interventions?*

In the period after the NPE, 1986, there was increased involvement of the Central Government in the provision of education. This, however, came in the form of a number of programmes and schemes that focused on aspects of elementary education. These included Operation Blackboard, Mahila Samakhya, Midday Meal Schemes etc (See Box for details on some of these programmes).

These schemes have had a limited impact as they have tackled the frills while not addressing the basic issues of lack of infrastructure, teachers, and community mobilisation in an integrated way. They have adopted at best a piecemeal approach, driven more often than not with the urgency of filling in numbers rather than achieving real long-term results.

#### **Some Centrally sponsored schemes following NPE, 1986**

##### **Operation Blackboard: 1986**

Main constraints were the paucity of learning aids, teachers and classrooms. So, this was a drive to provide small rural schools with basic teaching aids. It was targeted to provide at least 2 classrooms in each school with at least 2 teachers.

##### **District Institutes of Education and Training (DIETs): 1988**

In recognition of the training and professional support that teachers required on an ongoing basis towards improving their effectiveness, this scheme was launched. The scheme provided

funds to state governments to create such institutes by converting existing teacher training institutes or constructing new ones. The organisational format for the DIETs was standard.

#### **Total Literacy Campaigns: 1988**

Earlier attempts to provide adult literacy along with vocational skills training were unsuccessful. This programme is focused to providing total literacy and has its roots in an experiment in Ernakulum that later became the basis for the National Literacy Mission. The program provided grants to district administrations for organising intensive campaigns to mobilise large number of volunteers.

#### **Minimum Levels of Learning: 1989**

Inappropriately designed, prepared and worded and incredibly burdensome curricula has been a major stumbling block, as will be discussed later in Section II. In fact the complete non-relevance of what the child reads at school has been the reason for his/her alienation and finally dropping out of school. The MLL program involved a national R&D program to identify, for each state, the basic competencies in language, maths, social studies etc. These competencies that have now been tested form the basis for the new curriculum that has been designed by NCERT.

#### **The DPEP: 1993**

The DPEP was launched in 7 states – Assam, Haryana, Karnataka, Kerala, MP, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu - in 1994 and expanded to 3 more in 1996. These were Gujarat, HP and Orissa. It targets investment in districts that have below average female literacy levels and decentralizes planning and budgeting to district level. It primarily focuses on *enhancing quality of primary education* – in service teacher training, learning materials, and improved school facilities. It funds construction of buildings in a limited way.

The DPEP is managed at the Centre by the DPEP bureau in the Ministry of HRD, which serves as the technical and financial intermediary and monitoring agency for all the districts. Of the budgeted expenditure, 85 % comes from the Central allocation with the balance 15% being met by state and district funds. Implementation progress is monitored annually and serves as the basis for annual budgetary allocations to districts and sub projects. Learning achievement and drop out indicators are monitored every 3 years against baselines established for each district.

#### *4.3 Increasing share of “centrally sponsored” schemes in overall transfers – potential for misuse*

Revenue sharing between states and Centre takes place through a system of statutory and non-statutory transfers. (See Box). The share of statutory transfers in total Central transfers has fallen over the years and that of the discretionary, non-statutory transfers



increased.<sup>7</sup> The increased share of discretionary transfers comes in the form of centrally sponsored schemes and not through the Planning Commission.<sup>8</sup>

The issue is that these schemes often come with conditions attached to their disbursement. Moreover, the distribution of resources in a democracy like India is an important issue. The Finance Commission and the Planning Commission follow criteria that have been debated and discussed. Discretionary central allocations have the potential to be misused. Even the World Bank has highlighted this disconcerting trend in financing and noted that “increased direction has gone hand in hand with increased resources”.

### The system of transfer of resources

State governments fund about 60% of their total expenditure needs, which is met out of raising tax and non tax revenue. The balance 40% is met by the Centre through a system of federal transfers. Revenue sharing between the Centre and the States takes place under two broad heads:

- *Statutory or nondiscretionary transfers* for which the main sources are *tax revenue* (excise and income tax) and *grants-in-aid*. The revenue shares between Centre and states and for each state are fixed by the Finance Commission once every 5 years.
- *Nonstatutory or discretionary transfers* for which the sources are *the Planning Commission allocations* and *Centrally sponsored schemes*. The Planning Commission allocations are usually formula-based and a mix of grants and loans.

### 4.4 Increasing trend of non formal schools - tendency to look for short cuts

Another trend that has accelerated in the phase after 1990, has been the setting up of alternative education schools. The reasoning behind this trend in policy seems to be the need to improve literacy figures even at the cost of shortchanging the process. As a result, Government has been keen on setting up centres that can ‘suffice’ for providing cheaper alternatives of education.

“Our Constitution fathers did not intend when they enacted Article 45 that we just set up hovels, put students there, give untrained teachers, give them bad textbooks, no playground and say we have complied with Article 45 and primary education is expanding. The compliance intended by our Constitutional fathers, was a substantial compliance.”

M C Chagla, Education Minister, 1964 in his address to the Central Advisory Board of Education

<sup>7</sup> Between 1969 and 1980, statutory transfers accounted for 66% of total transfers. These fell to 61% in the 1980s and to less than 59% in 1992-93.

<sup>8</sup> These centrally sponsored schemes constituted about 52% in the Seventh Plan (1985-90) of the total nonstatutory transfers (up from 39% in the Fifth plan period).

<sup>9</sup> 1997 report on private education by the World Bank.

For example, the encouragement given to spreading non formal education centres. Given that formal schools imply more resources and setting up of regular systems, NFE centres have become an easier alternative for the Government.

Although there are many positives that this system has to offer in terms of flexible timings to students and encouragement of innovations in learning and teaching methods, these are essentially substitutes to formal schooling. They also suffer from the maladies of the formal schooling system and more so because monitoring and reporting systems are weak. Evaluation studies conducted by NIEPA in 1987 concluded that the NFE programs suffered from significant weaknesses. These are primarily, insufficient support by national and state authorities, poorly motivated staff and weak links with formal schooling.

As a corollary to this, there is also evidence of increasing inconsistency in the systems of Government provided school education. The Navodhya schools run by the Central Government are a good example. The average cost of provision of school education in these schools is much higher than that in Kendra Vidyalas and other Government schools.

#### *4.5 The increasing role of multilateral organisations in education - shift in focus to 'primary' education*

The World Bank, prior to the 1990s, had a limited role to play in education per se. The only assistance that was extended was in 2 technical training projects in late 1980s and an agricultural education project. This has changed with the Bank ready to actively collaborate in the field of basic education. There are three ongoing projects with the MHRD in primary education, one in Uttar Pradesh and the other two being phases of the DPEP project.

Reservations have been raised in various quarters on the sustainability of funding programmes in elementary education using external funding sources. Concerns have also been expressed regarding the shift in policy focus from *elementary* education to *primary* education, which is attributed to the focus of multilateral funding.

#### **Projects funded by multilateral agencies**

##### Funded by the World Bank

The Uttar Pradesh basic education project, the first IDA investment in basic education in India was approved in 1993. It is a \$165 million start up fund aimed to branch into a full fledged programme. The project aims to build institutional capacity, improve quality and completion rates and expand access to primary education. At the end of the project, an estimated additional 1 million students will acquire basic literacy and numeracy skills.



The DPEP Phase I started in November 1994 with a funding of US\$180 million. The project has a district based approach to decreasing drop out, improving access to education and increasing learning achievement. Phase I was implemented in selected districts of 7 states. The second phase of DPEP was approved in May 1996 with funds of US\$425 million to add and extend the DPEP concepts into 50 to 60 new districts in Uttar Pradesh and 12 districts in 3 new states.

A fourth project – an expansion of the DPEP is on the anvil in Bihar. The Bihar Education project will consolidate achievements made in other ongoing education projects in the state at all levels – ECCE, NFE, empowering women and UNICEF supported programmes.

### Other multilateral aid initiatives

Assisted by donors, states have also initiated basic education projects. Andhra Pradesh sought support in the early 1980s from the ODA which was followed by Bihar (UNICEF), Rajasthan (SIDA – Lok Jumbish), and Uttar Pradesh (IDA) in the period 1990 to 1993. Although these projects vary in design they share the same objective – that of increasing girls' enrollment and reducing disparities in education outcomes. They also include features to increase community involvement through Village Education Committees (VECs), to improve teaching material and motivation and work closely with the DIETs and state education departments providing an umbrella organisation.

## 5 A summary of the critique on policy on elementary education

The policy on elementary education in India can be assessed on the following parameters:

- Clarity - is the policy clear and transparent?
- Sustainability– are the initiatives sustainable in the long run?
- Seriousness – Does policy intent translate into financial commitments
- Accountability mechanisms - does the policy have inbuilt mechanisms of accountability of teachers?
- Protection of interests - does it protect the interests of the child?

### *Clarity of policy*

It is clear from the discussion in the earlier sections that the education policy lacks clarity in terms of responsibility of financing and execution. There is also lack of direction over the past 50 years with policy meandering from 'vocationalisation' to 'schemisation'. There is no clear and firm intent to address the basic issues of elementary education.

### *Sustainability of policy*

The education policy has taken the shape of several 'programmes' or 'schemes' that although well positioned, are not sustainable in the long term, both in terms of financing and implementation. There are three reasons:

1. Firstly, these programmes lack an integrated approach to the issue of elementary education. For example, it is well researched evidence that early childhood care and education is essential for preparing children for primary education (See Box on ECCE). The government treats this as a part of welfare and healthcare and not education. Similarly, there is a glaring gap in the ratio of upper primary and secondary schools as compared with existing lower primary schools. This implies that once a child finishes Class V (s)he has either no upper primary school to go to or else has to travel long distances.

This makes retention not a 'drop out' issue but a 'push out' one. There is a need to look at elementary education in a holistic integrated manner of child development, which moves away from individual issues of welfare, literacy and health and provides a complete package. Elementary education should look at the entire life cycle of a child from the age 0 to the age 18 (when (s)he is certified in Class X).

These programmes are also designed and managed by different divisions within the bureaucracy who have tended to treat them as virtual 'properties'. There is very little sharing with these schemes operating as isolated initiatives.<sup>10</sup>

2. Second, while designing the programmes, a top down approach is followed which results in pushing down solutions that are neither needed nor relevant on the ground. There has been a growing disenchantment even among Government and the recent Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan initiative (to which we will return later) attempts to consolidate these 'schemes' in order to increase their efficiency.
3. Third, these programmes come under 'plan' programmes that is financed by the Central Government (usually against a bilateral or multilateral funding). Once the designated period of the programme is over, it becomes non plan expenditure and finally devolves to the State Government. This implies that the State Government becomes responsible for continuing these programmes. Given the precarious financial status of nearly all State governments, they are reluctant to take these over, making long term financial sustainability a real issue.

---

<sup>10</sup> For example, one of the problems that ECCE programmes have faced is that while they address aspects of pre school education, they are managed by the Department of Women and Child, which focuses on welfare and health aspects and not by the Ministry of Human Resources and Development.



In this connection it is important to add that given the differences between States, it is generally those with lower educational achievement levels and therefore greater educational need that also have acute resource problems.

### *Seriousness of policy*

Policy commitments are serious when budgetary allocations reflect intent. As has been pointed out earlier, the budgetary allocation for education has:

- been inadequate in comparison with what is needed
- not grown commensurate with growth in demand - potential and existing
- actually declined as a percentage of GDP
- relied on state financing that is already stretched

### *Accountability mechanisms*

Any system fails if mechanisms to ensure accountability are not in place. Currently, there are no ways of ensuring that the system of elementary education is accountable to the children and parents. While teacher training and compensation has been the subject of much discussion, introducing accountability of teachers has been brushed aside as a 'difficult' issue.

### *Protection of interests*

The aspect of protecting the interests and rights of a child (and parents) have been completely ignored by policy initiatives. There is currently no accessible forum that serves as a quick redressal system either for an individual child or for organisations in the grassroots. More importantly the existing infrastructure both at the Central and State level is virtually government controlled which sometimes provides no feasible 'alternative' to individuals and small organisations.

#### **Lack of sustainability – is ECCE a way out?**

ECCE is a concept that focuses on 'timely prevention' rather than attempting to correct defects later. It provides health, nutrition and early schooling to children in the age group of 0-6 years. It therefore improves the readiness of children for school and increases the chances of them staying in school.

The rationale of ECCE is that children who come from a particular psycho-social and economic environment are simply not prepared to accept the challenges of learning. These

early defects and problems stay with the child and if not corrected within a particular period, are beyond redemption.

The concept has been accepted globally as being a significant input towards facilitating the realisation of the three goals i.e. universal enrollment, universal retention and improvement in quality of learning. This concept has special relevance in India where more than 50% children under 4 years of age are moderately or severely malnourished and 30% of the newborns are significantly underweight. Under such circumstances, the lack of reading readiness is not surprising.<sup>11</sup> ECCE interventions extend from providing health and nutritional interventions, custodial care, maternal care, schooling services and an all round caring environment to expectant mothers, infants and toddlers.

In India, ECCE was brought in through the Integrated Child Development Scheme (ICDS) launched in 1975 on an experimental basis in 33 projects. This programme has expanded and grown. The real thrust has come in the 1990s with studies showing the positive impact of the scheme on retention and learning achievement.

A NCERT study of 31,483 children in 8 states shows that ECCE has a significant impact on retention in primary grades. **Children who had been through ECCE demonstrated upto 20.5% better rates of retention.**

---

<sup>11</sup> A recent study by NCERT in four regions of the country on a sample of 1,495 children admitted in Grade 1 found the average reading readiness score to be 47% with marked deficiency in sound discrimination and audio visual matching tasks.



## Chapter 3: Other participants – the private sector and NGOs

This section has so far focused on the government, as it is the entity on which the principal responsibility for providing education rests. In this chapter, the role played by two other players of society is examined in the context of achieving UEE.

### 1. The private sector

In an environment where privatisation of erstwhile government run services e.g. power, telephones and water supply, seems to be the order of the day, there has been substantial debate about private participation in education. There are two categories of private schools. Private unaided schools (PUA) and Private aided schools (PA).

- PUA schools are privately owned and funded, and very heterogenous in terms of fee structure and range of socio-economic spectrum. Although government estimates claim this sector to be 'negligible', independent researchers assert that it is 'significant'.
- PA schools are almost fully (90-95%) funded by the government but the management is private. Most of these are set up by philanthropists who provide the building and other facilities, while the government provides the staff salaries and recurring costs. Kerala is a good example of such an aided system.

At the outset we should mention that the private sector is not new to education and has coexisted, albeit in a small way, with the government schooling infrastructure. Kerala and Tamil Nadu have benefited from schools run by private religious institutions or societies. Several communities have funded educational enterprise and local schools. These private initiatives have supplemented government efforts.

The debate around the private sector revolves around two main issues. First, whether private sector can actually *replace* the government infrastructure. Second, seen in this context, *whether it should be encouraged* (with appropriate fiscal and other incentives) to increase its presence and if this should be at the cost of government schools.

In order to answer the first we have to examine the extent of private schools in India. The Tapas Mazumdar Committee report, which estimated the number of PUA schools in order to determine whether these could be factored into calculations for meeting UEE, concluded that this number is insignificant. There are 41,000 PUA schools and these form less than 6% of the 7,75,000 schools that exist today. As a result the private sector was not factored in the calculations of the Committee.

“Compared to the large size of out of school children and their requirements, the presence of the private sector is a very small component and could not in any manner dilute the responsibility of the State to provide for free and compulsory education for all.”

*Tapas Mazumdar Committee Report,  
1997*

Moreover, the presence of private schools is basically confined to the urban areas. According to a summary of NCERT surveys conducted of the relative growth of PA and PUA schools over 1973-93, it is clear that *rural India still depends upon the government for elementary education*. In the case of urban India, the share of the private sector has increased perceptibly over time.

Table 1.7: No of recognised elementary schools under different managements

	Rural primary		Urban primary	
	1973	1993	1973	1993
Government	96	95	74	67
PA	3.5	3.5	17	10
PUA	0.5	1.5	9	22
	Rural middle		Urban middle	
	1973	1993	1973	1993
Government	79	85	68	51
PA	17	8	23	17
PUA	4	7	9	32

So, as far as the issue of the private sector substituting government infrastructure is concerned, the limitations are obvious. Given the prevalent scenario it will be a long time for the private sector to become a significant player in providing education infrastructure.

The second issue concerns the debate about whether the private sector should be encouraged. This would be based on whether private schooling has provided the required quality and whether, given the cost of schooling, it is over all cost effective.

The results on quality and management effectiveness are mixed. Although the general impression of private schools is one of accountability and responsiveness, there are not enough studies to come to conclusive results.

Table 1.8 : A comparative view of Government and Private schools: 1993

Item	Govt.	PA	PUA
<u>School Characteristics</u>			
Proportion of schools with drinking water facilities	41.4	66	87.1
Proportion with toilet facilities	7.6	31.5	64.9
Proportion with adequate no of blackboards	62.8	85.1	95.6
Proportion with library	40.7	49.3	28.7
Proportion with adequate playground facilities	27	39.2	57
Proportion having pucca buildings	65	54.4	75.8
Proportion having noon-meal scheme	13.3 (5.1)	38.4 (13)	4.7 (2.8)
Proportion having free uniform scheme	30 (6.1)	33.9 (7.9)	8.1 (1.3)
Proportion having free textbooks scheme	56 (13.1)	60.8 (15.2)	15.5 (3.2)



Teacher characteristics			
Pupil-teacher ratio	40.9	39.8	31
Proportion of SC/STs among full time teachers	20.5	13.3	8.4
Proportion trained	89.2	95.2	82.6
Proportion graduate and above	34.5	30.3	36.2
Proportion permanent	74.8	70.6	46.7

Figures in parentheses indicate the proportion of students benefitting.

Source: Sixth Educational Survey (1993)

The above table provides some broad indicators. Private schools tend to provide better infrastructure and learning aids than their government counterparts. They also understandably have fewer subsidised incentive schemes such as free meals and uniforms. Surprisingly the teacher quality is not very different from Government schools in terms of the number of teachers who are trained and are graduates.

*Although private schools profess to provide better education, it is difficult to state categorically that these schools are superior in quality to government schools.*

From a macro or national perspective the cost effectiveness of expenditure on private schooling should be judged after taking into account the fees paid by parents. *Private schooling is much more expensive than schooling in government schools* according to the NSS data of 1998. Even PA schools where fees are supposed to be kept at a nominal level by government decree manage to get fairly high fees from their pupils. NCAER data shows, however, that aided schools are much closer to government schools.<sup>12</sup>

To reduce the financial pressure on parents, PA and Government schools have an elaborate system of incentives of free textbooks, scholarships, uniforms, and the nutritious midday meal. *However, as per the table above, not more than 15% of the schools provide these incentives to the students.*

In conclusion, private schools exist but are a small component of the entire infrastructure. They are at best confined to the urban areas where they provide schooling opportunities for children who can afford them. There is insufficient data to reach conclusive evidence about the quality of the schooling in private schools that would justify the higher cost.

## 2. The non governmental sector (NGOs)

In 1990 there were about 15,000-20,000 NGOs actively engaged in rural development that disbursed external assistance to the tune of Rs 900 crores per year. This is

<sup>12</sup> The average annual expenditure per student in PUA schools was Rs 893 which is more than double that of government schools (Rs 346). The expenditure for PA schools was Rs 411.

equivalent to 25% of official development assistance to India. There is no doubt about the increasing importance of NGOs in the national landscape.

What is their role in basic and primary education? Unfortunately there are conflicting estimates on the number of NGOs working, depending upon type of classification employed and the meaning of education used. According to the PROBE report that conducted an indepth study of 188 villages in the states of Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh, *NGOs actually play a relatively minor role in the education system as a whole.*

This might be a startling finding considering the high visibility of NGOs and will have implications if one is to conceive of strategies that factor NGO involvement. However, it is important to note that although the number of NGOs working in basic education may be small, some of these have pioneered many new initiatives that have charted new ground in the evolution of education in the past decade. A detailed discussion on some of these initiatives is enclosed in Annexure 2.

From the above discussion it emerges that the Government is the principal provider of education in India. The other players such as the private and NGO sector are growing in importance; yet will remain insignificant for a long time.



## Chapter 4: Elementary Education - a fundamental right

### 1. The Supreme Court verdict of 1993

A landmark Supreme Court judgement in 1993 transformed the intent of the Government into a commitment by clearly establishing education as a fundamental right. The well known verdict in the case of J.P. Unnikrishnan Vs. State of Andhra Pradesh clearly enunciates,

*“The citizens of this country have a fundamental right to education. The said right flows from Article 21.”*

The judges while delivering their verdict expressed their anguish with respect to delayed deliverance. In Para 75 it observes,

“It is noteworthy that among the several articles in Part IV, only Article 45 speaks of a time limit, no other article does. Has it no significance? Is it a mere pious wish, even after 44 years of the Constitution? Can the State flout the same directions even after the article merely calls upon it to ‘endeavour to provide’ the same and even on the further ground that the said article is not enforceable by virtue of declaration in Article 37. Does not the passage of 44 years – more than four times the period stipulated in Article 45 – convert the obligation into an enforceable right?”

It further refers to the inadequate financial allocations made by various governments,

“In this context we feel constrained to say that allocation of available funds in India discloses an **inversion of priorities**. The Constitution contemplated a crash programme being undertaken by the State to achieve the goal set out in Article 45.”

The verdict leaves no room for doubt. The Tapas Mazumdar report on financial requirements for making elementary education a fundamental right reiterated the urgency that the judgement of the Supreme Court imparted.

“(the verdict)...has already transformed an incremental development goal into an entitlement of all children upto 14 years by pronouncing the Right to Education to be a Fundamental Right derived from the Right to Life itself.”

### 2. The Draft 83<sup>rd</sup> Constitution amendment Bill

As a reaction to the mounting international pressure and the momentum catalysed by the Supreme Court verdict that de facto made education a fundamental right, the Government has drafted a Bill that seeks to amend the Constitution. The Draft amendment was tabled in the Rajya Sabha in July 1997.

The key changes in the draft Bill that has been circulated are as follows:

- Limit the Constitutional right provided by Article 45 that guarantees free and compulsory education for all children upto the age of 14 years, to the age group 6-14 years.
- Exempt educational institutions run by private funds (non state) from providing free education.
- Place an additional duty on parents and/or guardians 'to provide opportunities for education'.

The Draft Bill has been referred to the Standing Committee of Parliament on Human Resource Development. The Committee submitted its report in November 1997. The Bill has been pending discussion since then.

Although these amendments are in a draft stage, it is evident that these changes, if they go through in this manner, will have huge implications for the goal of UEE for India. A more detailed discussion on this will follow in a later chapter.



## Chapter 5: Financing Universal Elementary Education (UEE)

The fact that budgetary allocations and Government expenditures have been grossly inadequate has been mentioned. Consequent to the Supreme Court verdict making education a fundamental right and the draft Constitutional amendment by Government seeking to make elementary education a fundamental right, two committees were constituted with the purpose of calculating the financial responsibility that such a fundamental right may entail.

### 1. The Saikia Committee

The Saikia Committee that submitted its report in January 1997, tentatively estimated the additional financial requirements for UEE to be Rs 40,000 crores over 5 years. This number was estimated for the 6-14 age group, assuming per child schooling cost to be Rs 948 per year and after factoring in an increase of 20% every year.

This did not, however, take into account improved quality of existing schooling. Besides, this estimate was only for children in the age group 6-14 years, and not the entire age group as defined by the UN Convention on Child Rights i.e. from 0 to 18 years of age.

### 2. The Tapas Mazumdar Committee

This committee, set up in 1997, to examine the financial implications of UEE looked into this issue in great detail. This committee came to the conclusion that it was possible, after making very reasonable assumptions about GDP and tax revenue growth, that UEE could be achieved in 10 years time.

The additional amount required to achieve this, based on certain norms, was calculated to be about Rs 1,37,000 crores over the next 10 years.

Translated in terms of allocation of GDP it meant that an additional 0.7% of GDP would be required to be allocated for elementary education every year.

“I sincerely believe that money can be found if representatives of the public, that is, Members of Parliament and members of State legislature give sufficient importance to this quest for universalizing access to our education.”

Dr Manmohan Singh, former Finance minister, in a speech on ‘Availability of Finances for Achieving UEE’, April 1998.

It is important to note that in the calculations of financial requirements, the Committee took only the age group taken by the Saikia Committee i.e. 6-14 years. It did not calculate the requirements of the entire age group of children. This figure would be substantially higher if the entire age group of children from 0-18 years, as defined by the United Nations Convention on Child Rights was included.

The report also made detailed recommendations on how the expenditure could be phased over the 10 years on learning materials, construction of schools, employment of teachers etc. At the end of the 10 years, for meeting the basic education needs of the 6-14 age group, the allocation of GDP was worked out to 6%.

The Tapas Mazumdar Committee recommendations clearly explodes the myth that financing UEE is not possible as the resources required are too large and therefore India does not have the money. It is clear from the workings of the Committee that the figures are certainly within reach.

It also confirms the fact that UEE has eluded India because of missing political will and nothing else. In this context, it is interesting to note that the actual expenditure on education by the Central Government in 1997-98 was only about Rs 7,800 crores. This is ridiculously low when compared with its expenditure on other sectors. For example, the bill for salaries of government employees totals to Rs 39,000 crores, up from Rs 19,000 crores in the past 4 years.<sup>13</sup>

---

<sup>13</sup> Article from Economic Times.



## Chapter 6: Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan: an assessment (SSA)

A National Committee of Education Ministers was set up under the Chairmanship of the HRD Minister in 1998 to examine how a holistic and convergent approach to UEE could be adopted. The National Committee submitted its report in 1999. The SSA has been designed on the broad recommendations of the Committee.

The SSA is an effort to universalise elementary education by involving the community and providing useful and relevant education of satisfactory quality. Some of the key elements of SSA are:

- An additional funds of Rs 60,000 crores will be spent on the SSA over the next 10 years. Programmes that are being run by the Centre such as Operation Blackboard etc will converge into the scheme by the end of the 9<sup>th</sup> Plan.
- Funds to be disbursed to districts based on District Elementary Education Plans prepared after a detailed pre-project planning exercise.
- Formation of a State Implementation Society that will be chaired by the Chief Minister and will be the vehicle for receiving and disbursing funds.
- Formation of a National Mission that will be chaired by the Prime Minister which will be responsible for overall supervision.
- Effective involvement of the PRIs, School Management Committees (SMCs), Village and Slum level Education Committees, PTAs etc in the management of the school.
- The funds for SSA will be shared between the Centre and States with the ratio 85:15 in the 9<sup>th</sup> Plan, 75:25 in the 10<sup>th</sup> and 50:50 subsequently.
- Initial emphasis is on getting children to school - EGS, NFE etc

Some of the stated objectives of the SSA are<sup>14</sup>:

- **All children in school**, Education Guarantee Centre, Alternate School, 'Back to School' Camp by 2003
- All children **complete five years** of primary schooling by 2007
- All children **complete seven years** of elementary schooling by 2010
- Focus on elementary education of **satisfactory quality** with emphasis on education for life
- Bridge all **gender and social category gaps** at primary stage by 2007 and at elementary education level by 2010
- **Universal retention** by 2010

<sup>14</sup> Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, Framework for Implementation, MHRD, December 21, 2000.

The SSA seems to be a step in the right direction in that it:

- squarely addresses the problem of basic education without digressing into ideological debates
- recognises the critical role that the community can and will play in the monitoring, planning and accountability of the education system
- incorporates political will by involving key government officials and going about it in a 'mission' mode.

There are, however, some issues that need to be highlighted at this stage. It is possible that over the next few months the programme will evolve and greater clarity will emerge.

- **Financial allocation:** The SSA allocates Rs 60,000 crores over the next 10 years which seems to be grossly inadequate if the Tapas Mazumdar committee allocations are compared. More importantly there is no rationale given for the computation of the figure. While the Tapas Mazumdar Committee worked out the amounts based on the projected needs in various states and districts, the SSA describes no such logic.
- **No clear unambiguous time frames:** In this context, there is no action plan described in terms of geographic expansion and/or issues that will be dealt with. The objectives of 'all children completing primary schooling by 2007' and 'universal retention by 2010' are laudable but no different from the ambitious motherhood statements made in the policies earlier.
- **Allocation norms are fixed and inadequate:** The norms/guidelines on the basis of which funds will be disbursed have been formulated with specific value against every initiative. For example, against teacher grants the amount allocated is Rs 500 per teacher per year. For an activity considered as crucial as research, evaluation and supervision in the SSA document, the amount allocated is Rs 1,500 per school per year.
  - No rationale is provided for the numbers. Moreover these allocations are fixed and not percentages. It is useful to point out the redundancy of fixed numbers that quickly get eroded.
  - These allocations also seem to be woefully inadequate and since there is no logic, it is difficult to understand why this is so.
  - The document also does not provide any mechanism for updating these guidelines and also fixing the responsibility for doing so.
- **Composition of the National Mission and State Implementation Society.** The suggested composition seems to be completely skewed in favour of government with no members that will provide an apolitical flavour. Besides, there is no system for changing the membership on a regular basis so that power centres do not emerge.
- **Too many organisations and the roles not defined clearly:** There are a number of existing structures e.g. NCERT, NIEPA and SIEMAT, DIETs. The SSA envisages



in addition, the CRCs and BRCs, the National Mission and the State Society. The SSA mentions fleetingly of monitoring being supervised by the community and then also mentions the NCERT, SIEMATs etc. The role and responsibilities of the various organisations is unclear and with so many organisations this might lead to a lot of confusion and delay.

- **The role of the community:** The SSA leans very heavily on community participation. For example, it refers to the role that the community is expected to play in micro planning and school mapping that will feed into preparing the District Elementary Education Plans.<sup>15</sup> It envisages that the teachers and system will be accountable to the community wherein the community bodies are expected to play a huge role. Then again it mentions its critical role in monitoring wherein the village registers and retention registers are expected to be maintained by various bodies such as School Management Committees, Village Education Committees, PRIs, PTAs.
  - Some of these initiatives and ideas are not new. Attendance registers are being maintained in most schools and their misuse is well known. Unless the formation of these bodies is well thought out and mechanisms to ensure that democratic processes are encouraged and maintained, these initiatives will also peter out.
  - Clarity regarding the constitution of these structures, their composition and nature, whether they will be elected bodies, whether they need to be registered etc is extremely important.
  - **Community involvement and not community ownership:** On the issue of community participation, it is important to note that while the community has been contributing to education and social issues in general, the SSA seems to force the community to contribute. For example, the norms on maintenance and repair for schools is Rs 5000 per year per school and has a clause that "must involve elements of community contribution".
- **Integration programmes of the alternative schools:** The fact that many children will be encouraged to attend alternative schools will mean that there has to be an accompanying programme that provides for their transition to mainstream schools and an evaluation that is common to all students irrespective of where they study. Currently, the evaluation exams are different for the formal schools and that for the NFE schools.
- **Centralized determination of roles:** The SSA lays out the role of communities in specific aspects of management of the schooling system, a role that many communities may not be equipped to handle. Communities, however, can have a great role in determining contextual curriculum, teaching of local language, culture etc. The basic assumption of the community as a homogenous unit is incorrect. The approach of SSA is to fit people into the system rather than attempting meaningful centralisation.

---

<sup>15</sup> These plans are to be ready for all districts by 2002.





## Section II

### *The Grassroots Reality*





## Chapter 7: Ground Realities

### 1. Introduction

1. NAFRE, together with its state partners,<sup>1</sup> has in the past months been working on developing a groundswell of opinion. Sustained activity towards this objective has culminated in State conventions in 10 states.<sup>2</sup> Besides, 6 states have also commissioned primary level surveys to gather data on identified parameters.<sup>3</sup> These parameters emerged out of a series of discussions held with partner states.
2. The previous section has provided an analytical perspective of the policy in elementary education. Some overall trends have been outlined and some critical gaps been highlighted. This section focuses on specific issues of access, adequacy and quality. The analysis uses data from 10 state partners who have collated and presented data at the State Conventions held over the past year.<sup>4</sup>

### 2. The framework of analysis

3. In this section an analysis is presented on the following issues:
  - a. Child Demographics
  - b. Enrolment figures – at pre primary, lower and upper primary levels.
  - c. Non Formal Education (NFE) Centres – their importance
  - d. Attendance rate – giving an indicator of the drop out rate
  - e. School adequacy – in terms of students and upper and lower primary school ratios
  - f. Access to schools in the rural areas
  - g. Teacher adequacy
  - h. Adequacy of school facilities
  - i. Prevalence of child labour
  - j. Enrolment of disabled children
  - k. Community participation
4. The analysis is supported, wherever possible, by primary level data from the States. Although this data is small in terms of sample size, it is extremely useful in that:

---

<sup>1</sup> NAFRE has an alliance with 14 States. These are Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Delhi, Jharkhand, Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat and Uttaranchal.

<sup>2</sup> State conventions have been held in Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, and Delhi. Conventions are planned for the remaining 4 states in the near future.

<sup>3</sup> Primary surveys have been commissioned in Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, West Bengal, and Delhi. A similar exercise is either ongoing or likely to be conducted in the other states.

<sup>4</sup> The secondary data is based on two sources: the 1993 Sixth All India Educational Survey, and the Selected Statistics released by the MHRD for the years 1998-99. Unless otherwise mentioned, the data pertains to 1998-99 figures. For population figures, this section uses the 1996 projections of the Registrar General of India.

- It helps to validate some of the conclusions arrived at on the basis of the secondary data.
- It helps to identify areas where there is a significant departure from the secondary data. These would constitute areas where further research may be needed to arrive at firmer conclusions.
- It researches areas that have not been dealt with in secondary surveys. These include community participation, disabled children and child labour.
- It helped establish and strengthen contacts with NGOs, voluntary organisations and change agents in the interiors of India.

5. There are four age groups that the analysis deals with:

- the primary age group which constitutes 6-14 years of age
- the lower primary (LP) age group which constitutes 6-10 years of age
- the upper primary (UP) age group which constitutes 11-14 years of age
- the pre primary (PP) age group which constitutes 0-5 years of age

### 3. The analysis

#### 3.1 *Child demographics*

Table 1 presents the gender ratios for the primary age group. This is based on Table A1 in the Annexure with details on child demographics.

Table 1: Female-male ratios in primary age group, (no of females per '000)  
Percentage of pre primary age group in child population

No	State	Secondary data		Primary data	
		Female-Male ratio (primary 6-14 group)	Proportion of 0-5 age group in 0-14 population (%)	Female-Male ratio (primary 6-14 group)	Proportion of 0-5 age group in 0-14 population (%)
1.	Karnataka	973	45.0		
2.	Kerala	967	44.7		
3.	Madhya Pradesh	929	47.9	899	50.2
4.	Maharashtra	942	46.2		
5.	Orissa	970	45.2		
6.	Rajasthan	896	46.8	875	50.8
7.	Tamil Nadu	958	43.9		
8.	Uttar Pradesh	880	47.4		
9.	West Bengal	954	44.8		
10.	Delhi	893	na	1020	46.9
	All India	925	na		

6. The declining female-male ratios, particularly in states such as Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh is of concern. These are states that have typically had a history of male dominance with the role of women in society being confined to the home. In contrast the southern states of Kerala, Karnataka and Tamil Nadu show a much higher gender ratio (higher than the national average). The primary data in this respect corroborates the evidence of a



declining gender ratio. In fact it points to a greater decline than that indicated by the secondary data.

7. The table also shows that of the child population in the 0-14 age group, the share of the pre primary age group is very high. Again this has been corroborated by primary data which confirms that the share of the pre primary age group is nearly 50 per cent. This has implications for policies on early childhood care and education and how these need to be integrated with the overall policy on education.

### 3.2 Enrollment figures

8. Table 2 presents the overall gross enrollment ratios (GER) for the primary age group. This is based on Table A2 in the Annexure. Gross primary enrollment ratios are defined as the number of children enrolled in classes I to VIII, as a percentage of the estimated child population in the age group 6-14.

Table 2: Gross enrolment ratios (GER), primary age group, (in per cent)

		Secondary data			Primary data		
		Enrolment ratio	Female enrolment ratio	Non-enrolled	Enrolment ratio	Female enrolment ratio	Non-enrolled
1.	Karnataka	92.1	88.0	7.9			
2.	Kerala	90.7	89.4	9.3			
3.	Madhya Pradesh	91.8	79.3	8.2	55.9	50.9	44.1
4.	Maharashtra	103.1	100.9	-3.1			
5.	Orissa	78.8	64.1	21.2	51.6	na	48.4
6.	Rajasthan	85.8	60.6	14.2	52.2	38.0	47.8
7.	Tamil Nadu	102.4	99.7	-2.4			
8.	Uttar Pradesh	54.3	41.2	45.7			
9.	West Bengal	77.7	71.0	22.3	77.7	76.5	22.3
10.	Delhi	82.3	86.0	17.7	84.4	78.9	15.6

9. As is evident the GERs for states with higher literacy levels such as Tamil Nadu and Maharashtra are higher than those in states like Orissa and Rajasthan. The primary data also reveals that official GERs tend to be overstated. For example, the actual enrolment figures for Rajasthan, Orissa and Madhya Pradesh, are significantly lesser than the official ones.

One of the reasons could be that official numbers are inflated by reporting officers in an attempt to window dress (See Box). At a local level, therefore, the issue may more often be that of simply providing access to a school rather than working on demand side interventions (e.g. midday meals, free uniform).

Box: The Madhya Pradesh experience on GERs

Data from Madhya Pradesh reveals that the state government was earlier focusing efforts on increasing retention rates in schools. Reported enrolment rates were high, but so were the drop out rates.

A massive programme of micro level data gathering<sup>5</sup> revealed that enrolment figures were inflated and therefore the drop out rates seemed extremely high. The strategic issue was therefore not to increase retention but to increase access and provide infrastructure. The Education Guarantee Scheme (EGS) has its foundations in this rationale.

10. The issue of lower female GERs is consistent throughout the states. The difference is more stark in the states with low literacy levels such as Orissa, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh. In these states, an increased focus on girl enrolment in the efforts to provide demand side interventions could result in a greater impact on overall GERs. This is particularly so in the case of Rajasthan.

Table 3: Proportion of non enrolled children enrolled in NFE and those out of school

		Secondary data			Primary data		
		Non enrolled ('000s)	Enrolled in NFE ('000s)	Proportion of children out of school (%)	Non enrolled ('000s)	Enrolled in NFE	Proportion of children out of school (%)
1.	Karnataka	765	0	100			
2.	Kerala	460	2.05	99.55			
3.	Madhya Pradesh	1279	621.1	51.44	3394	2146	37
4.	Maharashtra	-515	16.8	103.26			
5.	Orissa	1449	273.5	81.12			
6.	Rajasthan	1577	224	85.80	15474	7637	51
7.	Tamil Nadu	-238	11.5	104.83			
8.	Uttar Pradesh	15700	1092	93.04			
9.	West Bengal	3393	0	100.00	11011	1704	85
10.	Delhi	419	3.5	99.16	6225	1834	71

11. Of the total child population not enrolled in school, a proportion is found enrolled at non formal education (NFE) centres that are run by the government. Table 3 shows that these are virtually non existent in states like Karnataka and West Bengal where formal or regular schools are the major delivery system. They also have an insignificant share in high literacy states such as Kerala, Delhi, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu.

They have, however, greater significance in low literacy states such as MP and Uttar Pradesh, where they have been successful in bringing down the 'out of school' proportion. The primary data reveals that the ratio of NFE enrolment to formal school enrolment is as high as nearly 35% in MP and Rajasthan, owing to the policies that these states have been pursuing in 'alternative

<sup>5</sup> This exercise was called Lok Sampark Abhiyan, and covered 6 million households and 10 million children in the state of Madhya Pradesh.



education'.<sup>6</sup> The efficacy of NFEs in providing education will depend critically on their ability to meet guidelines of quality and raise educational achievement levels.

12. Table 4 provides the breakup of the GERs in terms of the PP, LP and UP age groups. Clearly the GERs decline very significantly between Lower Primary and Upper Primary age groups. This decreases the overall efficiency of investments in education.

The pre primary enrolment figures are also very small. There are three avenues for enrolment of children in the pre primary age group:

- Independent pre primary centres
- Pre primary centres attached with schools
- Balwadis and anganwadis run by the NGOs/government

Table 4: Break up of GERs for PP, LP and UP age groups

		<i>PP enrolment as a prop of popln (0-5) (%)</i>	<i>Lower Primary GERs</i>		<i>Upper primary GERs</i>	
			<i>Total</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Female</i>
1.	Karnataka	16.2	107.90	104.4	66.1	61.0
2.	Kerala	6.1	87.8	87.0	95.2	93.2
3.	Madhya Pradesh	9.1	108.3	96.5	62.2	48.1
4.	Maharashtra	17.0	112.7	111.0	86.4	83.3
5.	Orissa	14.1	94.9	79.8	51.3	37.4
6.	Rajasthan	7.6	101.8	75.7	57.6	33.6
7.	Tamil Nadu	13.1	108.3	107.1	92.9	87.9
8.	Uttar Pradesh	3.1	63.3	49.3	38.6	26.4
9.	West Bengal	8.9	93.7	87.0	50.5	43.6
10.	Delhi	na	87.0	86.9	73.7	84.4
	<b>All India</b>		<b>92.1</b>	<b>82.9</b>	<b>57.6</b>	<b>49.1</b>

### 3.3 Attendance rates

13. An aspect of the education scene in India, which has been described in detail in Section I concerns the drop out rates and the fact that retention of children is a real issue in many states. A good indicator of retention rates are attendance rates in schools. Table 5 indicates the attendance rates in rural and urban areas.

Table 5: Attendance rates in rural and urban areas

		<i>Rural and Urban population ('000s)</i>			<i>Rural population ('000s)</i>	
		<i>6-10 age</i>	<i>11-13 age</i>	<i>14-17</i>	<i>1-5 class</i>	<i>6-8 class</i>
1.	Karnataka	75	70	47	70	44
2.	Kerala	97	97	75	91	76
3.	Madhya Pradesh	64	67	52	59	28
4.	Maharashtra	88	85	67	85	49
5.	Orissa	63	66	47	62	43

<sup>6</sup> The ratio of NFE enrolment to formal enrolment is 38% for MP and 32% for Rajasthan.

6.	Rajasthan	58	64	47	51	32
7.	Tamil Nadu	91	74	43	83	58
8.	Uttar Pradesh	61	66	45	58	31
9.	West Bengal	67	74	48	64	28
10.	Delhi	84	95	72	90	96
	All India	69	72	50	63	39

14. The attendance rates decline (as do GERs) as one goes up the class level. The attendance is highest at the lower primary level. By the time one reaches the lower secondary level, the attendance rate comes down to 50%. The conclusion is that about 1 out of every 2 children either drops out or attends irregularly in the 14-17 age group. The problem of low attendance is more acute in the rural areas. The attendance rate for Class 9-10 in rural areas is only 22 per cent.

### 3.4 Adequacy of schools

15. Table 6 shows that there is very little uniformity between the student to school ratios over the states. Some of the comparatively literate states, such as Delhi, Maharashtra, and Kerala also have high student school ratios, indicating a cause for concern. It is possible that while increasing coverage of literacy, the emphasis is on enrolment rather than ensuring quality is ensured by keeping a check on numbers.
16. On the flip side states such as Orissa and Uttar Pradesh that rank low on literacy seem to have less than average no of students per school, indicating that there is available infrastructure that could be utilised in a better way. It is possible that the numbers are low because the school has a shortage of teachers (which is usually the case) and can cater to lesser students. However, it has very different strategic implications in terms of focusing on teacher recruitments and enhancing the overall utilisation of existing infrastructure.

Table 6: Student school ratio and ratio between upper primary and lower primary schools

		Secondary data			Primary data		
		Student:school ratio (LP)	Student:school ratio (UP)	LP:UP school ratio	Student:school ratio (LP)	Student:school ratio (UP)	LP:UP school ratio
1.	Karnataka	274.4	100.1	0.98			
2.	Kerala	394.1	609.8	2.27			
3.	Madhya Pradesh	124.0	164.7	4.11	135.2	128.8	3.13
4.	Maharashtra	284.6	237.1	1.88			
5.	Orissa	96.9	107.1	3.48	70.5	169.7	5.15
6.	Rajasthan	205.2	156.4	2.37	89.4	193.9	3.60
7.	Tamil Nadu	216.6	653.5	5.60			
8.	Uttar Pradesh	146.6	233.1	4.57			
9.	West Bengal	171.7	980.3	17.97			
10.	Delhi	490.4	1038.3	4.50	868.6	661.3	2.69
	All India	177.1	212.4	3.30			

17. A disturbing feature that emerges from Table 6 is the ratio between lower primary and upper primary schools, which is very low. Assuming there are



drop outs at the upper primary level, the number of UP schools need to be lesser than the LP schools. (The official norm is 1:2) However the actual all India average is more than 1:3. There also exists wide variation among states with states like MP and Orissa with higher than the national average.

18. Primary data corroborates the general trend of the ratio of LPS to UPS being much higher than desired. Not having a UP school within a reasonable distance acts as a deterrent and parents also do not see the linkage between the LPS and the UPS. This again reiterates the fact that in India the retention issue is more of **'push out'** rather than 'drop out'.

### 3.5 Access to schools in rural areas

19. The provision of schools in the rural areas is certainly an issue in many states, with there being approximately 1 school per village. As a matter of fact in states such as Orissa, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh there are villages with no schools as the ratio is less than 1. In comparison, Kerala has resolved this issue and has on an average more than 5 schools per village.
20. The primary data supports the lack of access and reveals that the ratio is even lesser than what secondary sources indicate.

Table 7: Access to schools in rural areas (1993 data)

		Secondary data				Primary data		
		School per village	Prop of rural popln with LPS (%)	Prop of rural popln with UPS (%)	Prop of village w/t any pre primary facility (%)	School per village	Prop of rural popln with LPS (%)	Village w/t any PP/UPS/school facility (%)
			Upto 1 km	Upto 3 km				
1.	Karnataka	1.25	96.58	91.42	48.0	1.62	84.43	37.7*
2.	Kerala	5.43	89.68	91.84	29.8			
3.	Madhya Pradesh	1.06	93.55	72.60	74.6	0.73		42.2**
4.	Maharashtra	1.25	95.82	87.64	25.0			
5.	Orissa	0.93	93.74	87.88	68.0	1.17		
6.	Rajasthan	0.97	92.55	79.00	79.0	1.14		7.1***
7.	Tamil Nadu	1.96	99.53	87.78	38.5			
8.	Uttar Pradesh	0.79	88.60	82.09	87.0			
9.	West Bengal	1.13	93.07	87.51	74.6			
10.	Delhi	1.80	93.83	99.05	39.0			

\* Proportion of villages not having a PP facility

\*\* Proportion of villages not having an upper primary school

\*\*\* Proportion of villages not having a primary school - lower and upper

## 3.6 Teacher adequacy

Table 8: Teacher adequacy in schools

		Secondary data				Primary data			
		Student: teacher (LPS)	Student: teacher (UPS)	Teacher: school (LPS)	Teacher: school (UPS)	Student: teacher (LPS)	Student: teacher (UPS)	Teacher: school (LPS)	Teacher: school (UPS)
1.	Karnataka	107.38	16.95	2.56	5.91				
2.	Kerala	58.82	37.23	6.70	16.38				
3.	Madhya Pradesh	46.52	32.10	2.67	5.13	33.48	27.11	4.04	4.75
4.	Maharashtra	67.54	29.39	4.21	8.07				
5.	Orissa	36.74	33.31	2.64	3.22	24.50	42.65	2.88	3.98
6.	Rajasthan	71.26	21.21	2.88	7.37	34.71	25.14	2.58	7.71
7.	Tamil Nadu	57.63	58.23	3.76	11.22				
8.	Uttar Pradesh	44.32	46.42	3.31	5.02				
9.	West Bengal	60.03	123.45	2.86	7.94	81.21		2.21	
10.	Delhi	38.87	71.53	12.61	14.52	64.18	27.55	13.53	24.00
	All India	42	37						

21. There are wide variations in the student teacher ratios across states, with states such as West Bengal and Madhya Pradesh with unduly high ratios. Another issue that the primary data highlighted was the fact that teacher absenteeism made the ratios even more skewed (See Box).

**Box: A school in Karnataka**

There are about 600 students in this school in a village of Karnataka. Assuming a teacher student ratio of 1: 40, the number of teachers supposed to be in the school is 15. However, the story is different. The headmaster's post is vacant and 3 teachers are on leave. There are effectively 12 teachers handling 600 students. Karnataka has a very high student teacher ratio (107 at LPS level) and this is made worse by the fact that teachers are not present.

There are 9 classrooms. Again assuming a ratio of 1: 40, there should be at least 15 instructional rooms. There are only 9 classrooms, some are virtually verandahs with no rooms for teachers. The state as a very low average for number of classrooms per school, of 1.54 classrooms.

22. The ratios also vary drastically between the lower and upper primary age groups.
23. The number of teachers per school is higher for the upper primary schools on an average.

## 3.7 Adequacy of school facilities

24. School facilities go a long way in creating and maintaining an environment that is conducive to learning. Aspects such as 'pucca' buildings, number of instructional rooms, drinking water and toilet facilities for boys and girls have been analysed. The broad conclusions are as follows:



25. A large proportion of schools do not have pucca buildings. These are concrete structures that can withstand the impact of nature's elements. Primary data supports this finding in most states. This may have issues of holding classes outside and facing temporary dislocations due to the weather.
26. A very large proportion (almost 55% on an all India basis) of schools do not have drinking water facilities. The number was much smaller according to primary surveys. Another major issue is that of the near absence of toilets in schools. About 90% of the schools all over India do not have toilets; they seldom have one that is separate for girls. The numbers for an urban school are much better both in terms of drinking water and toilets. The data for Delhi suggests this. This may be on account of lack of open spaces around an urban school which is not the case in a rural school.
27. Most schools have blackboards although they may not have other learning materials. Data from the states suggests that the learning materials etc are usually inaccessible as there is no place to keep them in the school and so they are kept in the headmaster's/teacher's house.

Table 9: School facilities - buildings and schools with no instructional rooms

		Secondary data				Primary data
		Prop of LPS with pucca bldgs (%)	Prop of UPS with pucca bldgs (%)	Prop of LPS with 0 instruc rooms (%)	Prop of UPS with 0 instruc rooms (%)	Prop of LPS with pucca bldgs (%)
1.	Karnataka	85.62	86.31	17.07	13.25	
2.	Kerala	78.26	75.27	2.03	1.03	
3.	Madhya Pradesh	57.15	65.49	10.16	5.97	37.93
4.	Maharashtra	70.08	73.03	7.85	4.24	
5.	Orissa	58.92	42.76	2.73	0.61	10.43
6.	Rajasthan	90.64	92.67	4.38	0.94	78.76
7.	Tamil Nadu	62.02	56.86	8.05	4.94	
8.	Uttar Pradesh	89.76	77.98	3.89	8.72	
9.	West Bengal	37.15	44.50	11.69	2.90	23.50
10.	Delhi	47.97	63.64	7.16	5.14	29.17

#### 4. Primary data indicators

28. Primary surveys collected data on the following indicators:

- Existence and spread of child labour
- Enrolment of disabled children
- Level of community participation on the ground

Table 10 presents the key findings in 5 states where primary surveys were conducted. These are:

16610  
EDU-100  
P01

#### 4.1 Child Labour

- The proportion of children engaged in child labour varies between urban and rural areas. It is about 10 per cent for Delhi and is about 30 per cent in the other states (where the data is primarily rural). The high proportion for West Bengal may be due to a difference in statistical methodology.
- The proportion of children engaged in child labour as a percentage of the child population is about 15 per cent. This is consistent across the states with the exception of Delhi.
- Child labour is a very industry/activity specific issue. This means that a major share of the children employed in labour tend to be in certain industries and not in many industries. For example, in Rajasthan about 90% of child labour is found in mining and agriculture. In MP, about 50% of child labour is found in mining and carpet weaving; in Delhi the majority of child labour is in rag picking and domestic help.
- Girls are generally employed in activities that require dexterity and those that are indoors. For example, girls are not engaged for grazing and agricultural activities.

#### 4.2 Disabled children

- Secondary data only provides the number of disabled schools and the enrolment in these schools. The primary data presented in Table 10 reveals that about 30-40 per cent of disabled children are enrolled in schools.

#### 4.3 Community participation

- With increasing participation of communities being a corner stone of reforms in elementary education, the primary surveys tried to confirm the existence and level of participation on the ground. These community vehicles are known by several terms such as VECs, VCs, PTAs and POs.<sup>7</sup> There could be more than one community participation vehicle in a village. They perform the following functions:
  - Surveillance and monitoring
  - Motivating parents
  - Operational assistance
- The key conclusions of the survey are as follows:

---

<sup>7</sup> VECs are Village Education Committees, VCs are Village Committees, PTAs are Parent Teacher Associations and POs are People's Organisations.



- There are a fair number of community participation vehicles existing and operating in the villages surveyed. The number of committees per village is usually more than 1 (in the case of MP and Delhi it was nearly 2).
- The number of women members of the total membership was high and usually formed about 50-70 per cent of the total membership.
- Usually one form of community participation dominated. In the case of MP it was PTAs, while in the case of Rajasthan and Orissa the main vehicle was the VEC.

## 5. In summary

29. The child population comprises nearly 50 per cent of children in the pre primary age group (0-5 years of age). This fact has been corroborated by secondary and primary data. Appropriate and adequate care and education of this age group will determine overall literacy figures in the future.
30. At present only a very small percentage (10-15 percent) is enrolled in the balwadis/anganwadis or special primary schools. Increased allocation of resources in this segment and mainstreaming it with the primary schooling segment will be vital.
31. Retention of children has been highlighted as a key issue that has driven several demand driven policy initiatives. Although retention is an issue, lack of access to a school where a child can receive reasonable quality of education still persists. The data in the earlier sections has thrown up two reasons why this is the case.
32. First, GERs tend to be overstated. While we will not go into the reasons why this is so, it is enough to note that this is the case. Therefore, the drop out ratio in comparison looks unduly huge.
33. Secondly, the reason why there is a drop in the GERs for primary school and those for upper primary schools is that there are simply not enough upper primary schools to cater to the needs of the schooling children. The average lower primary to upper primary ratio is 3:1 and in most states it is worse than that.
34. It also appears from the data that female GERs are consistently low for all classes and states. Demand driven initiatives that are targeted to girls could be considered rather than for boys and girls.
35. One of the key conclusions of the primary data analysis is that community partnership vehicles exist in the country and more importantly, are functioning. This is an extremely important finding since empowerment of the local people and increased local governance will be the cornerstone of several Government initiatives.

36. The data on non formal education centres that are run by the Government shows that they are virtually non existent in the higher literacy states. They are, however, quite significant in states with low literacy levels. It may be worthwhile to assess the quality of education imparted in states such as MP, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh where NFEs will be an important feature.
37. The data on child labour suggests that it exists in specific industries such as carpet weaving, mining etc. Efforts to raise overall awareness on this vital issue can therefore be focused on these specific industries.
38. Data on adequacy of schools, students and teachers shows that there is a wide variation among states as far as ratios regarding school-student, teacher-student and teacher-school are concerned. It is possible that there are many hidden inefficiencies such as teacher absenteeism, poor maintenance of infrastructure, vacant teacher posts etc. It is therefore possible to increase the overall efficiency of the schooling system by setting in place initiatives for the community to monitor progress.



## Section III

### *NAFRE's Recommendations*





## Chapter 8: Recommendations of NAFRE

### 1. Introduction

1. NAFRE and its members are working towards the common goal to realize the right of every child to education. It reflects the demand of its members that include 2,400 grassroots organisations, leading national and state organisations. Some of NAFRE's core beliefs that it has crystallised over the past 2 years and is in the process of building consensus around are encapsulated below.
2. The key concerns that NAFRE and its grassroots organisations have are as follows:

#### *1.1 State commitment and responsibility*

3. The State while paying lip service to education has not treated it as a national priority which is reflected in the fact that the 83<sup>rd</sup> amendment has not been passed. Moreover, elementary education is the responsibility of the State and roles need to be clearly defined between Central, state and local government.

#### *1.2 Access to schools*

4. The analysis in Section 1 and the data from Section 2 clearly shows that availability of schools remains a key concern in India. There are simply not enough schools and the ratio of upper primary to primary schools is ridiculously low. The absence of an upper primary school within reasonable walking distance is a huge deterrent to the demand for elementary education in the first place. The policy lacuna also becomes the reason why children are 'pushed out' of the primary cycle before completing 8 or even 5 years of primary schooling.
5. A related issue of access is that of costs of education. Although education in Government schools is supposed to be free, the costs of uniforms, textbooks, stationery, and transport add up to a figure that is out of reach for many people.

#### *1.3 Quality*

6. Quality comprises aspects relating to content and curriculum and its appropriateness to a local context, the teachers and teaching methods employed and infrastructure in schools and enabling infrastructure to access schooling.

#### *1.4 Sustainability of initiatives*

7. One of the main problems that have been identified with the existing policy is that the initiatives are not sustainable in the long term. They are poorly designed and top down rather than being based on the needs on the ground.

Financing is also not based on a long term assessment of needs and funding sources that can be accessed. In particular, the funding of elementary education using multilateral funds and/or "schemes" that are unsustainable further compounds the problem.

## 2. NAFRE's stand on universalizing elementary education

### 2.1 *Policy*

#### Education is a fundamental right

8. NAFRE believes that every child has the right to education. Its definition of elementary education is a "means of enlightenment for bringing about a transformation towards a more humane, empowered and enlightened society, to make education an effective instrument for removing inequalities and disparities." It has been widely accepted that education is absolutely essential if one has to overcome the vicious circle of poverty, disease and ignorance and progress socio-economically. In fact the returns on investment in education, in particular elementary education, are the highest as compared with investment in other development efforts.
9. NAFRE's views are supported through the Directive Principles of our Constitution and the J.P. Unnikrishnan vs. State of Andhra Pradesh Supreme Court judgement in 1993 that already confers the right to education as a fundamental right.

#### It is the responsibility of the state to provide education

10. It believes that every child has the right to education and that it is the responsibility of the State – as defined by the Central, state government and local government/PRIs – to provide it. The roles and responsibilities remain unclear and need to be defined. The presence of the private sector is almost insignificant in the rural areas and hence a "market solution" cannot be relied upon for attaining UEE.

#### Children comprise the age group 0 to 18 years of age

11. Its definition of a child and his/her rights is that defined by the UN Convention Rights of Child i.e. all persons 18 or less than 18 years of age. This is relevant especially in the Indian context where children generally are overage at most levels and hence graduate from primary school at a later age.
12. The draft bill (referred to as the 83<sup>rd</sup> amendment) seeks to limit the Constitutional right from 0-14 to 6-14 years. NAFRE believes that this is a



regressive step and in fact recommends that the age group be expanded to 0-18 years. The rationale lies in:

- the basis for India ratifying the UN Convention on Child Rights that binds it to providing free and compulsory education to all children.
- the inclusion of the pre primary age group (0-5) is essential in the Indian context because existing socio-economic environments do not prepare children for basic education.

13. The justification of expansion of the upper age group from 14 to 18 lies in the fact that a number of children are overage at various grades. Besides, since the certification exam is at Class X when the child is 18 years, the child's education would be incomplete if (s)he stopped at Class VIII.

### Equitable quality of education

14. An adequate standard of quality for every school irrespective of geographical location. The Tapas Mazumdar Committee report's recommendations could be a starting point. For example, 1: 2 ratio for upper primary and primary schools and 1:30 for teacher student ratio and "no cheaper variants of non formal or part time education need to be provided".
15. Quality norms need to be contextual and geo-specific to an area. These are to be constantly upgraded by community action and involvement.
16. Quality norms to be equitable and consistent for Government owned and aided schools.
17. The critical aspects of content, teachers and infrastructure determine the attendance rates in schools. Quality norms as developed above should address the following issues:
- ♦ **Content:** Although some efforts have been made to develop contextual curriculum, these have to be made more relevant to the needs of the local people. Merely laying down minimum national standards without making them contextual, results in mechanical implementation and disappointing results.
  - ♦ **Teachers:** There is a basic lack of teachers in most districts with many schools still running with one teacher when the official norm is 2 teachers per school. Teaching methods are by and large didactic and there has not been much progress in developing alternative ones, particularly to help teacher cope with multi-grade teaching.
  - ♦ **Infrastructure:** This is an issue that has been sorely neglected by the policy on elementary education. There are no minimum standards laid down with regard to availability of infrastructure such as school buildings, learning material, facilities etc.

NAFRE's definition of "free education"

18. NAFRE believes that elementary education in India is not free - it is a myth that it is free. The costs of education add upto, besides the tuition fees, a substantial sum. NAFRE strongly believes that 'free' education should include the costs of textbooks, uniforms, stationery, transport, games, facilities for differently abled children etc.

¶ UEE is an immediate National Priority

19. NAFRE and its members feel that the Indian Government has not developed an adequate infrastructure in education and India has a long way to go for universalisation of elementary education. It is this strong political conviction that NAFRE and its members are seeking to catalyse at the policy level. It is agreed that education needs to be a Constitutional right.

## 2.2 *Finance*

20. More importantly, NAFRE believes that such a mission of universalization of education desperately requires political will to be backed by actual financial expenditures and budgetary allocations. The spending on elementary education is inadequate to provide the schools, teachers, infrastructure and quality as revealed by successive expert committees that have examined the matter.
21. The amount to be allocated for elementary education needs to be recomputed on the basis of requirements - not only of providing a comprehensive education for all today but also building an infrastructure that can take in future requirements.
22. In the absence of such a figure, a minimum of 6% of GDP should be allocated to elementary education.

## 2.3 *Process*

Participatory decision making

23. NAFRE and its member grassroots organisations also believe that decentralisation of planning and decision making and eventually empowerment of the communities holds the key to systemic reform of the education process. Therefore, for NAFRE, the issue is not of universalisation alone but that of developing a system of education for the masses based on equity, excellence and relevance.



Depoliticised regulation and enforcement of education policies

24. NAFRE believes that the process of determining standards, curricula, oversight of implementation of UEE should be left to an apolitical institution that is suitably empowered and representative of the different interests and stakeholders including citizens representatives, community groups, educationists and government.
25. Successive policies of the government on education, however ambitious or inadequate, have suffered in terms of implementation. Several aspects to implementing education policy are at present with government or institutions whose efficacy and ability to do things are related to political will and priority. The result has been successive postponements of the achieving the objective of UEE over the past five decades. The failure to achieve even limited policy objectives of government bears out the above.
26. The premise of an apolitical and empowered "regulator" has been accepted by government as necessary to promote, nurture and effectively achieve national objectives in different sectors. NAFRE believes that elementary education as a national priority should have the same.

Defined roles of the Centre, State, local self-government and the community

27. The discretionary nature of interaction at different levels of government often leave communities disempowered in terms of accessing elementary education. NAFRE believes that clarity of roles and responsibilities vis-à-vis education would help the process of achieving UEE.

3. Recommendations of NAFRE for the Draft 83<sup>rd</sup> Constitutional amendment

28. NAFRE has analysed the draft bill and discussed it with its members. Based on the feedback it has received, it seeks to recommend some positive changes that will make the legislation progressive and more meaningful in its overall objective of providing UEE and in the context of NAFRE's views on the same. NAFRE believes that the opportunity presented by the proposed 83<sup>rd</sup> amendment that will explicitly enshrine education as a fundamental right in the Consitution must be seized to make comprehensive changes in the system.
29. NAFRE believes that the following positive changes should be made in the 83<sup>rd</sup> Constitutional Amendment Bill

*3.1 Legislation to cover all children i.e. from the age group 0-18 years of age:*

30. India, as a signatory to the UN Convention on Child Rights, has already agreed to this view. The present Bill seeks to restrict the definition of children who will access elementary education to the age group of 6 to 14 years of age. In the Indian context, children are often overage for a particular level of schooling and

therefore complete their elementary education at the age of 18. Also, several research studies have proven that early childhood care and education helps in preparing the child for primary school and substantially increases retention levels. Therefore inclusion of the 0-6 years age group is essential.

*3.2 To remove the proposed compulsion on parents to provide education:*

31. It is well understood that the involvement of parents and communities is essential towards ensuring UEE. The existing draft bill has a clause that makes it the fundamental duty of the parent/guardian to provide education. There is existing evidence that points to misuse of such a compulsion in several states that do have compulsory laws of elementary education. It is the view of NAFRE that the clause making it education a compulsion on parents be deleted.
32. It would be important to note that the Joint Parliamentary Committee on HRD that submitted its report on the Draft Bill has interpreted the term “compulsory” in the Constitution as being a compulsion on the State to provide education and not the parents to compulsorily send their children. The committee accordingly recommended that penal provisions in this connection should be avoided and necessary provisions made clear in a follow up legislation.<sup>8</sup>

*3.3 To define ‘free’ education to include other costs:*

33. The draft bill presently leaves the term ‘free’ undefined. NAFRE strongly believes that ‘free’ education should include apart from tuition fees, the costs of textbooks, uniforms, stationery, transport, games, facilities for differently abled children etc.
34. This is supported by the Joint Parliamentary Committee that debated the bill, which stated that “there is a general feeling that free education means exemption from payment of fees. The members were, however, unanimous that free education should not confine just to exemption from payment of fees.”

*3.4 The Bill should define equitable quality education:*

35. The draft bill also leaves out the crucial issue of quality of education. NAFRE believes that this should be addressed in the legislation to reflect that quality includes curriculum content, teaching availability and infrastructure. The exact modalities of defining the standards could be determined through a mechanism of an empowered and apolitical regulatory authority on education through participatory means.

---

<sup>8</sup> According to the report of the Committee submitted on November 24, 1997, “the Committee feels that compulsion should be on State Governments to provide for essential facilities for UEE rather than on the parents, majority of whom are struggling for their survival.”



*3.5 The Bill should clearly state the financial budgetary allocation:*

36. The Financial Memorandum of the draft bill states the financial commitment to be Rs 40,000 crores. This figure is based on calculations carried out by the Saikia Committee in 1996 and needs to be updated for the entire age group of children.
37. NAFRE believes that the financial memorandum be changed to reflect the political commitment of the Government. It should clearly allocate a minimum of 6% of GDP to elementary education.

*3.6 To include private schools in UEE:*

38. The draft bill exempts private schools from the purview of the legislation. NAFRE believes that private schools must be included in UEE. The Law Commission has already recommended that 20-50% of students must be free in private unaided schools.





## Annexure 1 and 2





## Annexure 1: The organisational structure of elementary education

The Ministry of Human Resources Development (MHRD) is responsible for formulating and planning national policy in HRD. It is responsible for setting education standards, supporting research and advanced study, and supporting institutions that assist states in formulating and planning programmes and monitoring and evaluation. It is accountable to the Cabinet Ministry, which is headed by the PM. The union minister for HRD is assisted by the Deputy Minister for Education and Culture.

The Department of Education located within the Ministry is the principal body for policy formulation. It is divided into 10 units, each headed by a joint secretary or joint education adviser.

The MHRD and Department of Education coordinate with both national and state institutions in discharging their functions. The prominent national institutions are:

- Planning Commission – is responsible for drafting India's annual and five-year plans.
- Central Advisory Board on Education (CABE) is chaired by the Union Minister, HRD and consists of State ministers of education and leading experts. Was set up pre-independence and has contributed actively to the debate and evolution of education policy.
- National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) assists in formulating and implementing policies, programmes and innovations. Is well known for its contribution in developing and disseminating school curricula. It has analogous bodies at the state level called SCERTs.
- National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) assists in the planning, monitoring and administrative issues. Has parallel state bodies called State Institutes of Educational Management Administration and Training (SIEMATs).
- National Council for Teachers' Education (NCTE)

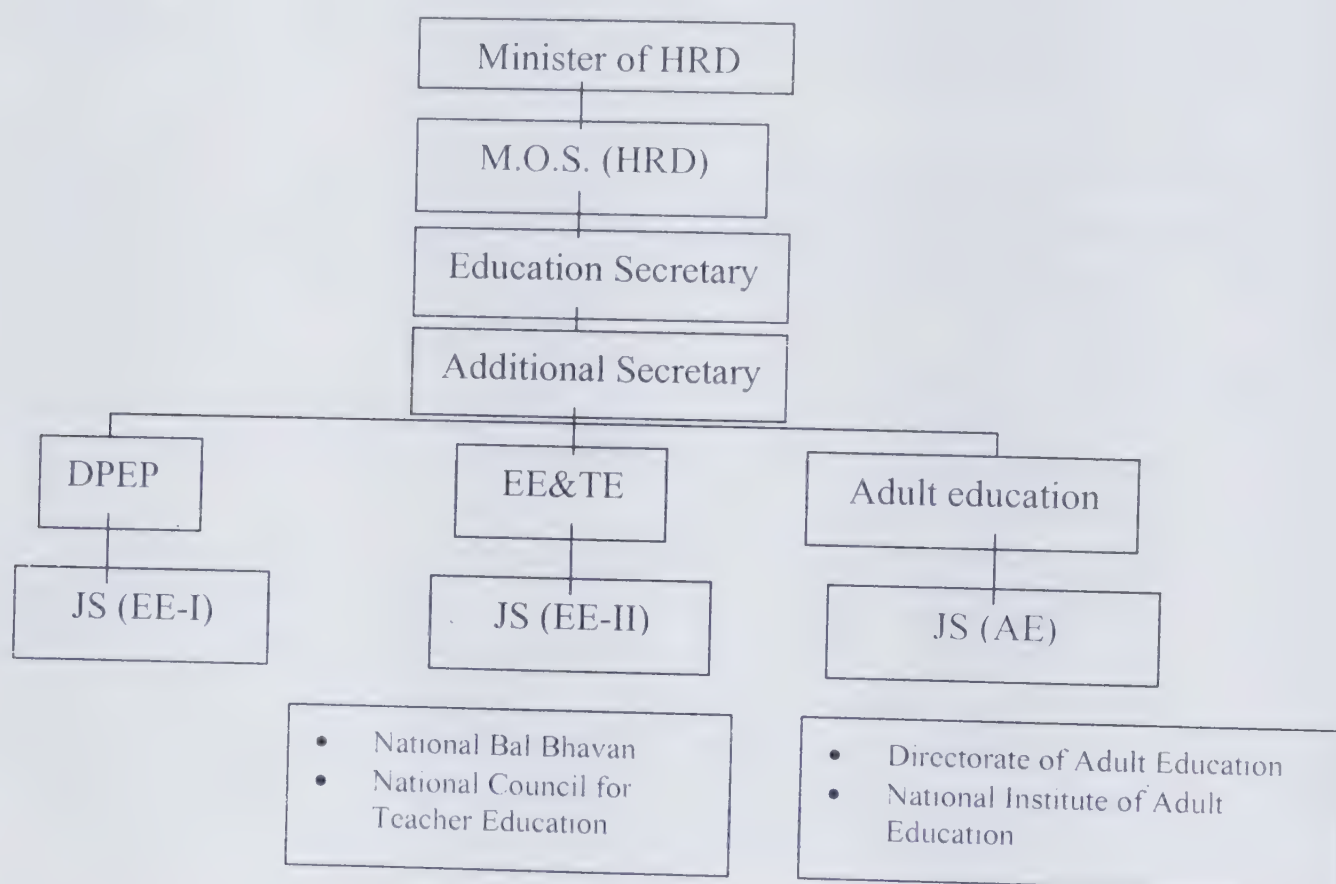
At the state level, the district is the unit of administration and management. The district education officer is responsible to the State department of Education and implements and supervises programmes. Additionally the block education officers act as the supervisory support.

Parallel political, administrative and technical management systems in primary education in India

<i>Level</i>	<i>Political</i>	<i>Administrative</i>	<i>Technical</i>
Central	Govt of India/ MHRD	Department of Education	NCERT, NIEPA
State	State legislature/ State ministry of education	Directorate/ Secretariat of education	SCERT, SIEMAT
District	Zilla parishad	District education office	DIETs
Block	Panchayat samiti	Block education	Block resource

<i>mandal taluka</i>		office, school inspectorate	centre, cluster resource centre
Village	Gram pradhan, village education committee	Headmaster	Teachers

## Department of Elementary Education &amp; Literacy, MHRD



## Legend

M.O.S.	Minister of State
DPEP	District Primary Education Project
EE	Elementary Education
TE	Teacher Education
AE	Adult Education



## Annexure 2: Selected NGO initiatives in elementary education

There are essentially four major kinds of NGO initiatives that are categorised as:

- Groups which firmly reject child labour and take a serious stand on the issue of *child rights* leading to education.
- Groups that believe that *early childhood care* and nurturing is crucial in breaking the vicious child labour cycle. Hence they focus on providing this so that education becomes the natural next step.
- Groups that focus on *expanding availability* of educational centres – NFE centres and schools so that there is increased access.
- Lastly, groups that emphasise *improving the quality of education* believing that the pull of a “good school” will encourage children to enroll and learn.

### A. Child rights and advocacy

The issues of child rights gained prominence following the UN Convention on Child rights (CRC). There are strongly divergent views on various subjects. For example, some groups believe that child labour must include all children out of school, as they are potential child labour since they are being denied their rights. The more liberal school believes that a distinction must be made between “work” and “labour”.

Some groups reject the non-formal systems and insist on upgrading the quality of formal schools. However, there are others who consider it important to incorporate the economic realities of life and so attach importance to non-formal interventions, if they are relevant.

#### Child Rights Advocates

- *The NGO Forum for Street and Working Children*, established in 13 cities with more than 60 organisations working with street children. They have coordinated with NGOs, groups and individuals and raised awareness levels in areas of healthcare, education and empowerment.
- *Campaign Against Child Labour (CACL)*, initiated in 1992, is a nationwide effort seeking eradication of child labour. It seeks to mobilise public consciousness and has built up a network of more than 500 social action groups working on child rights advocacy. The CACL was started by ARC (Action for Rights of the Child, Pune), YUVA (Youth for Unity and Voluntary Action, Mumbai) and Terre Dos Hummes (TDH). It is active in 12 states.
- *The South Asian Coalition of Child Servitude (SACCS)* is a Delhi based NGO. It is the first Asian joint initiative set up against bonded labour and has freed more than 27,000 children through raids and with the help of judicial intervention. RUGMARK is a certification developed by the group to certify products free from child labour.
- *MV Foundation*, has been working in 500 villages of the Ranga Reddy district of Andhra Pradesh. The focus has been to bring bonded child labour and working children within the ambit of school of education. Started in 1991, it has brought 80,000 children from work into school. The belief is that financial incentives (midday meals)

and special facilities are neither necessary nor sufficient to pull away children from work. The key is parental awareness and participation.

### B. Early Childhood Care Education (ECCE) Initiatives

India is one of the few countries with a publicly funded ECCE programmes through its network of Integrated Child Development Scheme (ICDS) centres and anganwadis (creches).

#### An example of ECCE

Pratham Mumbai Education Initiative concentrates on providing pre-school children with education and care. Started by UNICEF its objective is to ensure that all children in the age group of 3-10 years in Mumbai city are enrolled in pre-school centres or primary schools. It has developed a low cost and effective model for ECCE that is community based. It sets up a balwadi on community demand and using community space. (There are nearly 3,000 balwadis catering to about 60,000 children) The cost per balwadi is Rs 4,500 and Rs 500 per child per year. The NGO eventually seeks to hand over the financial responsibility of the centres to the Municipal Corporation of Mumbai.

### C. Expanding availability: NFE centres and schools

Non formal education centres were started by the Government in 1979, as a response to dealing with out of school children. However, these centres also suffered from the same problems as the formal schools – lack of supervision, accountability and motivation. Some NGOs have achieved greater success in experimenting with alternative schooling.

#### Non formal centres

*The Education Guarantee Scheme (EGS)* was implemented by the Government of MP in January 1997. Under EGS, the government *guarantees the provision of educational facilities* in habitations with no schooling facilities within a radius of a kilometre. This is done within a period of 90 days from receiving the demand by the local community. The cost of one EGS centre is Rs 8,500 per annum.

By mid April 1998 (after one and a half years of operation) there were 16,551 EGS centres running in 45 districts. These centres are run by locally recruited *gurus* who work in coordination with the State education machinery, tribal departments and village panchayats. The teaching material, evaluation systems, training is locally evolved. A detailed MIS has also been developed to periodically monitor and take corrective action.

*The Mabadi project in Andhra Pradesh* (“mabadi” means “our school”) began in 1990 with the initiative of the Village Tribal Development Authority (VTDA). The VTDA set up community schools as part of mobilising community participation. The initiative for the



school came from the community which together with the seed funding provided the space and teaching volunteers. The VTDA only coordinated and assisted the activities. There are presently 850 mabadi schools in the area.

*The Lok Jumbish initiative* started in June 1992 with the overall aim being to universalise primary education in Rajasthan. It addresses the needs of children left out of the mainstream educational system through NFE centres called *Sahaj Shiksha Kendras*. These constitute a large number of girls (since female illiteracy is a huge problem in Rajasthan), minority groups, child labourers etc.

The *Sahaj Shiksha* programme was originally designed along the lines of the government run NFE centres. These have since evolved into locally relevant and easily adaptable learning modules. NGOs such as Sandhan, Alaripu and Digantar have been providing continuous academic support and capacity building inputs to the programme. According to an evaluation by ORG in 1996, the proportion of girls enrolled at the kendras increased from 40% (in 1993) to 75% in 1995.

#### D. Upgrading the image of the school – more “good schools”

A number of NGO initiatives have concentrated on pedagogy and teaching and learning processes as a means of enhancing quality of education. The rationale is that an improved school responds to the expectations of the local community and is in return provided basic support for access, retention and satisfaction.

##### **Upgrading quality of education**

*The Shiksha Karmi* project was started in the Silora block of Ajmer district in Rajasthan where two locally recruited resident educational workers substituted some primary school teachers. The innovation was successful and it was formally launched in 1987 with SIDA aid, assisted by the Government of Rajasthan and Tilonia (a voluntary group). By early 1999, the project had covered 2,725 schools in 140 blocks with 6,085 shiksha karmis in service. The creation of local cadre of motivated, accountable and accessible teachers is the cornerstone of the project.

*Eklavya* has been concerned with developing alternative elementary education curriculum, particularly for science education. Its work rejects the standardised curriculum that is insensitive, out of context and non relevant. In the 1980s, Eklavya pioneered the concept of activity based science teaching in a few middle schools through the Hoshangabad Science teaching Programme in MP. An appropriate science kit was developed for rural schools and this programme now spans 500 schools in 14 districts of MP.

In 1987, Eklavya also started an experiment for making primary school education a “joyful” experience. The Eklavya package emphasises active classrooms with confident and articulate children who enjoy their tasks. The textbooks are simple, close to common speech and the subject matter relevant to the local environment.





## Annexure 3: Primary Data







Table A1: CHILD DEMOGRAPHICS contd																				
Children in pre primary (0-5)				Children in primary (6-14)			F-M overall		F-M - LP		F-M -UP		F-M primary		%age of 0-5					
Male	Females	Total	Male	Females	Total	D/C*1000	G/F*1000	J/I*1000	P/O*1000											
4030	3880	7910	4908	4775	9683	968	976	968	973					45.0						
2038	1953	3991	2507	2424	4931	963	964	972	967					44.7						
7308	6980	14288	8048	7480	15528	942	945	903	929					47.9						
7342	6954	14296	8570	8075	16645	945	952	926	942					46.2						
2854	2770	5624	3464	3361	6825	970	969	972	970					45.2						
5059	4710	9769	5853	5242	11095	912	906	877	896					46.8						
4009	3834	7843	5121	4905	10026	957	958	957	958					43.9						
15999	14926	30925	18285	16096	34381	905	900	847	880					47.4						
6260	6061	12321	7770	7414	15184	960	962	941	954					44.8						
na			1250	1116	2366	na	911	861	893				na							
			98958	91576	190534				925											
					20000															
4007	3737	7744	4052	3644	7696	916	na	na	899					50.2						
na						na														
17593	15820	33413	17254	15089	32343	887	na	na	875					50.8						
na					49443	na														
16579	18657	35236	19745	20133	39878	1068			1020					46.9						



Table A2: ENROLMENT FIGURES, '000s											
No	State	Child popIn (6-14)		Total	Enrolled popIn (6-14)		Total	Enrolment ratio	Female enrolment ratio		
		Males	Females		Male	Females					
1	Karnataka	4908	4775	9683	4714	4204	8918	92.1	88.0		
2	Kerala	2507	2424	4931	2304	2167	4471	90.7	89.4		
3	Madhya Pradesh	8048	7480	15528	8316	5933	14249	91.8	79.3		
4	Maharashtra	8570	8075	16645	9009	8151	17160	103.1	100.9		
5	Orissa	3464	3361	6825	3221	2155	5376	78.8	64.1		
6	Rajasthan	5853	5242	11095	6341	3177	9518	85.8	60.6		
7	Tamil Nadu	5121	4905	10026	5373	4891	10264	102.4	99.7		
8	Uttar Pradesh	18285	16096	34381	12057	6624	18681	54.3	41.2		
9	West Bengal	7770	7414	15184	6525	5266	11791	77.7	71.0		
10	Delhi	1250	1116	2366	987	960	1947	82.3	86.0		
	All India										
No	State										
1	Karnataka	NOT AVAILABLE									
3	Madhya Pradesh	4052	3644	7696	2449	1853	4302	55.9	50.9		
5	Orissa	na		49553	na		25567	51.6	na		
6	Rajasthan	17254	15089	32343	11138	5731	16869	52.2	38.0		
9	West Bengal	26006	23437	49443	20504	17928	38432	77.7	76.5		
10	Delhi	19745	20133	39878	17771	15882	33653	84.4	78.9		

Table A2: ENROLMENT FIGURES, '000s contd						
Non-enrolled	Non enrolled	NFE enrolled	Out of school			
(%)	nos		(not in NFE)	%age		
7.9	765	0	765	100		
9.3	460	2.05	458	99.55		
8.2	1279	621.1	658	51.44		
-3.1	-515	16.8	-532	103.26		
21.2	1449	273.5	1176	81.12		
14.2	1577	224	1353	85.80		
-2.4	-238	11.5	-250	104.83		
45.7	15700	1092	14608	93.04		
22.3	3393	0	3393	100.00		
17.7	419	3.5	416	99.16		
44.1	3394	2146	37	Enrolled means only formal schools;NFE + Others have been clubbed		
48.4	23986	na				
47.8	15474	7637	51	Enrolled means only those in formal schools		
22.3	11011	1704	85	Enrolled includes Govt + others		
15.6	6225	1834	71	Enrolled includes Govt + pvt		





Table A4: PRE PRIMARY NOS, '000s														
No	State	Children in pre primary (0-5)			Inde prim & pre-prim with sc			Balwadis children etc 1993			Pre-prim enrolled (%)			
		Male	Females	Total	Male	Females	Total	Male	Female	Total				
1	Karnataka	4030	3880	7910	113	79	192	560	532.0	1092		16.2		
2	Kerala	2038	1953	3991	12.8	15.8	28.6	104	111.0	215		6.1		
3	Madhya Pradesh	7308	6980	14288	110.5	81.3	191.8	575	532.0	1107		9.1		
4	Maharashtra	7342	6954	14296	463.5	414.7	878.2	815	733.0	1548		17.0		
5	Orissa	2854	2770	5624	16.9	13.5	30.4	396	369.0	765		14.1		
6	Rajasthan	5059	4710	9769	100	77	177	300	261.0	561		7.6		
7	Tamil Nadu	4009	3834	7843	87.8	77.8	165.6	432	431.0	863		13.1		
8	Uttar Pradesh	15999	14926	30925	24	15	39	536	393.0	929		3.1		
9	West Bengal	6260	6061	12321	59.7	45.7	105.4	515	473.0	988		8.9		
10	Delhi	na	na	na	69	73.7	142.7	11	9.8	20.8				
In actual nos														
No	State													
1	Karnataka	NOT AVAILABLE												
3	Madhya Pradesh	4007	3737	7744	na	na		451	378.0	829		10.7		
5	Orissa	NOT AVAILABLE												
6	Rajasthan	17593	15820	33413	na	na		5564	4296.0	9860		29.5		
9	West Bengal	NOT AVAILABLE												
10	Delhi	16579	18657	35236	4457	2892	7349					20.9		









Table A8: Adequacy of schools, '000s										
No	State	LPS nos	UPS nos	LP enrol nos	UP enrol nos	LP stu:sch ratio	UP sch: stu ratio	LP:UP schools ratio		
1	Karnataka	23.69	24.14	6501	2417	274.4	100.1	0.98		
2	Kerala	6.75	2.97	2660	1811	394.1	609.8	2.27		
3	Madhya Pradesh	86.86	21.11	10773	3476	124.0	164.7	4.11		
4	Maharashtra	41.8	22.2	11896	5264	284.6	237.1	1.88		
5	Orissa	42.1	12.1	4080	1296	96.9	107.1	3.48		
6	Rajasthan	35.1	14.8	7204	2314	205.2	156.4	2.37		
7	Tamil Nadu	30.8	5.5	6670	3594	216.6	653.5	5.60		
8	Uttar Pradesh	94.5	20.7	13856	4825	146.6	233.1	4.57		
9	West Bengal	52.1	2.9	8948	2843	171.7	980.3	17.97		
10	Delhi	2.7	0.6	1324	623	490.4	1038.3	4.50		
	All India	626.7	190	110986	40353	177.1	212.4	3.30		
No	State									
1	Karnataka		8	3381	1030	135.2	128.8	3.13		
3	Madhya Pradesh	25	48	17420	8147	70.5	169.7	5.15		
5	Orissa	247	42	13503	8144	89.4	193.9	3.60		
6	Rajasthan	151								
9	West Bengal									
10	Delhi	43	16	37351	10580	868.6	661.3	2.69		

Table A9: Access in rural areas, 1993 data													
No	State	Villages 000s	Habitation 000s	LPS (1998) 000s	UPS (1998) 000s	Total sch 000s	School per village	Sch per habitation	% of popln in habitation	Upto 1 km	% of popln with LPS in habitation	Upto 3 km	Vill with 0 PP facility (%)
1	Karnataka	27.07	48.8	20.2	13.6	33.8	1.25	0.69	91.11	96.58	60.86	91.42	48.0
2	Kerala	1.38	8.7	4.7	2.8	7.5	5.43	0.86	76.67	89.68	50.54	91.84	29.8
3	Madhya Pr	71.6	102.2	64	11.7	75.7	1.06	0.74	84.67	93.55	31.36	72.60	74.6
4	Maharasht	40.5	72.4	34.7	16.1	50.8	1.25	0.70	90.65	95.82	61.08	87.64	25.0
5	Orissa	46.9	73.1	34.2	9.5	43.7	0.93	0.60	76.10	93.74	34.21	87.88	68.0
6	Rajasthan	37.89	63.9	29.2	7.6	36.8	0.97	0.58	85.39	92.55	46.96	79.00	79.0
7	Tamil Nadu	15.8	45	26.6	4.3	30.9	1.96	0.69	77.16	99.53	35.36	87.78	38.5
8	Uttar Pr	112.8	212	74	15.1	89.1	0.79	0.42	60.50	88.60	21.69	82.09	87.0
9	West Beng	37.7	96	40.4	2.3	42.7	1.13	0.44	61.22	93.07	14.16	87.51	74.6
10	Delhi	0.2	0.27	0.3	0.06	0.4	1.80	1.33	81.93	93.83	58.31	99.05	39.0
No	State												
1	Karnataka	122	n.a			198.0	1.62	n.a	n.a	84.43	n.a	46.72	37.7
3	Madhya Pr	45	na	25	8	33.0	0.73	na					42.2
5	Orissa	377	na			441.0	1.17	na					
6	Rajasthan	170	na	151	42	193.0	1.14						7.1
9	West Beng	172	na										
10	Delhi	na											

46 vill don't have anganwadis

Vill with no UPS - reasons for low retention

12 vill don't have a school



Table A10: TEACHER-STUDENT; TEACHER-SCHOOL DATA, '000s													
No	State	LPS nos	UPS nos	LP enrol nos	UP enrol nos	LP teachers nos	UP teacher nos	Stu:teacher LPS ratio	Stu:teacher UPS ratio	Teacher:sch LPS ratio	Teacher:sch UPS ratio		
1	Karnataka	23.69	24.14	6501	2417	60.64	142.58	107.38	16.95	2.56	5.91		
2	Kerala	6.75	2.97	2660	1811	45.22	48.65	58.82	37.23	6.70	16.38		
3	Madhya Pradesh	86.86	21.11	10773	3476	231.56	108.28	46.52	32.10	2.67	5.13		
4	Maharashtra	41.8	22.2	11896	5264	176.13	179.1	67.54	29.39	4.21	6.07		
5	Orissa	42.1	12.1	4080	1296	111.04	38.91	36.74	33.31	2.64	3.22		
6	Rajasthan	35.1	14.8	7204	2314	101.1	109.1	71.26	21.21	2.88	7.37		
7	Tamil Nadu	30.8	5.5	6670	3594	115.74	61.72	57.63	58.23	3.76	11.22		
8	Uttar Pradesh	94.5	20.7	13856	4825	312.67	103.94	44.32	46.42	3.31	5.02		
9	West Bengal	52.1	2.9	8948	2843	149.07	23.03	60.03	123.45	2.86	7.94		
10	Delhi	2.7	0.6	1324	623	34.06	8.71	38.87	71.53	12.61	14.52		
No	State												
1	Karnataka												
3	Madhya Pradesh	25	8	3381	1030	101	38	33.48	27.11	4.04	4.75		
5	Orissa	247	48	17420	8147	711	191	24.50	42.65	2.88	3.98		
6	Rajasthan	151	42	13503	8144	389	324	34.71	25.14	2.58	7.71		
9	West Bengal	183		32889		405		81.21		2.21			
10	Delhi	43	16	37351	10580	582	384	64.18	27.55	13.53	24.00		





Table A.12: SCHOOL FACILITIES, 1993 data, in actual nos						
No	State	Drkg water %	Toilets %	Sep toilet for girls %		
1	Karnataka	23.9	3.31	1.77		
2	Kerala	76.2	40.3	12.05		
3	Madhya Pradesh	34.4	9.3	4.56		
4	Maharashtra	53.5	12.5	7.54		
5	Orissa	24.9	3.1	1.06		
6	Rajasthan	54.2	21.4	8.74		
7	Tamil Nadu	62.3	12.6	8.23		
8	Uttar Pradesh	55.52	17.4	8.34		
9	West Bengal	59.5	11.1	3.29		
10	Delhi	95.99	85.2	49.95		
	All India	44.23	10.86	5.12		
No	State					
1	Karnataka	13.11	13.11			
3	Madhya Pradesh	20.6	20.6	6.8		
5	Orissa	5.90	1.81			
6	Rajasthan	0.42	0.12	0.07		
9	West Bengal					
10	Delhi	34.72	68.75	na		



TABLE A13: PRIMARY DATA

	MP	%age	Delhi	%age	Rajasthan	%age	Orissa	%age	W Bengal	%age
Child labour										
Child population (0-14)	15440		75117		65755		49553		49443	
Children enrolled in various institutions	7277		42873		34366		25567		38432	
Children not enrolled	8163		32244		31389		23986		11011	
Percentage of non enrolled children engaged in child labour	2435.00	29.83	3360.00	10.42	9711.00	30.94	7326.00	30.54	9018.00	81.90
Percentage of total children engaged in child labour	15.77		4.47		14.77		14.78		18.24	
Number of children in specific- carpet weaving, mining	1246.00	51.17		69.50	8917.00	91.82	na		na	
Number of children in general - rag picking, servants, agriculture, grazing	947.00	38.89		30.50	794.00	8.18	na		na	
Number of children in agriculture activities	512.00			na						
Number of girls in agriculture activities	116.00	22.66		na						
Number of children in carpet weaving	851.00			na						
Number of girls in specific activities e.g., carpet weaving	669.00	78.61		69.50	4607.00	51.67				
Disabled children										
No of disabled children (0-14) age group	221	1.43	220	0.29	572	0.87	767	1.55	na	
No of disabled children in the (0-14) age group enrolled	74	33.48	66	30.00	204	35.66	378	49.28	na	
Community participation										
No of schools	33.00		59.00		193.00		441.00		183.00	
Number of committees/ no of schools	63.00	1.91	131.00	2.22	230.00	1.19	445.00	1.01	90.00	0.52
Number of women members		56.20	1084.00	74.86		50.00	414.00	19.01	na	
No of PTAs	24.00	38.10	na				105.00	23.60		
No of VECs	20.00	31.75	na		137.00	59.57	287.00	64.49		
No of Village Committees (VCs)	13.00	20.63	na				44.00	9.89		
No of People's Organisation	6.00	9.52	na				9.00	2.02		







